

CIGARETTE SMOKING AS A RISK
FACTOR IN PULMONARY DISEASE

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CIGARETTE SMOKING

AS A RISK FACTOR IN PULMONARY DISEASE

Prepared for the Council for Tobacco Research

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SUMMARY

1. Introductory remarks. The primary purpose of this review article is to examine the evidence supporting the statement made by the Surgeon General to the effect that "cigarette smoking is the most important cause of chronic obstructive bronchopulmonary disease." The literature that has been examined includes the following: 809 articles on cigarette smoking containing original observations or conclusions; 510 articles on general aspects of pulmonary diseases; and 350 articles which have accepted and publicized the statement of the Surgeon General on the health consequences of smoking. Copies of the total of 1669 articles are being forwarded to the Council for Tobacco Research and are listed in the text as bibliographies of Sections I to VII, publicity bibliographic lists in Section VIII, and additional bibliographic lists in Section X.

II. Occurrence of pulmonary emphysema in nonsmokers. The term chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in the Surgeon General's statement includes pulmonary emphysema. The available evidence does not support the belief that cigarette smoking is the most important cause of pulmonary emphysema. Cigarette smoking is one of the risk factors, which include sex, aging, genetic factors, infection and air pollution. Patients dying of pulmonary emphysema diagnosed by postmortem examination include nonsmokers in a ratio of 22 to 34 %. In unselected ^{reported} autopsies, pulmonary emphysema occurs in 10 to 30 % of nonsmokers and 50 to 99 % of smokers. Patients with antemortem diagnosis of pulmonary emphysema include an incidence of 7.6 % who are nonsmokers.

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The overall range from 7.6 to 34% of patients with pulmonary emphysema who are nonsmokers is determined by the variable size and nature of the population in the group, with varied sex and genetic factors. The wider range of incidence of smokers (66 to 99%) among patients with pulmonary emphysema does not necessarily mean a cause and effect relationship.

Attempts to induce pulmonary emphysema in animals have not been uniformly successful. One widely publicized experiment in the dog shows histopathological signs of emphysema but no functional results. On the other hand, an unpublicized experiment in the rat failed to indicate emphysema on functional and histopathological examination.

III. Chronic bronchitis: concurrence of cigarette smoking, inhalation of pollutants and infection. Chronic bronchitis, clinically diagnosed, occurs in an overall mean of 87% smokers and 13% nonsmokers. Cigarette smoking cannot be identified as the most important risk factor, because it is difficult to exclude air pollution and infection. There is no available model in the laboratory which mimics the pathological and functional features of the human form of chronic bronchitis. The reported experiments pertain to one of several underlying processes in chronic bronchitis, such as mucus secretion, bronchial epithelial changes, nature of the alveolar lining, and the influence of infection. Under specified conditions in animals, exposure to cigarette smoke alters these processes, but this does not necessarily mean that cigarette smoking alone causes chronic bronchitis.

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IV. Pulmonary emphysema-bronchitis complex. The mortality

statistics which provide the basis for the Surgeon General's statement combine pulmonary emphysema and chronic bronchitis under the term chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. The separate death rates for emphysema and bronchitis are available and should have been handled separately. It appears to the reviewer that combining the two sets of statistics under a single name has improved the results of statistical analysis by establishing the high correlation between cigarette smoking and death rate. The reviewer has not completed a separate analysis of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema. Nevertheless, the shortcomings of mortality statistics are here listed, including the following: sources of error in filing death certificate, regional differences in air pollution and other factors which influence mortality statistics, factors affecting prognosis of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema, and inherent characteristics of the individual cigarette smoker.

V. Non-occurrence of chronic pulmonary disease in smokers.

The morbidity statistics have been used to support the Surgeon General's statement. The occurrence of coughing and expectoration as derived from answers to a questionnaire does not represent chronic bronchitis or pulmonary emphysema. Some surveys in the United States and in Great Britain and other foreign countries indicate that air pollution, industrial exposure and socio-economic class influence the prevalence of respiratory symptoms.

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VI. Bronchopulmonary function in smokers and nonsmokers.

Smokers complaining of respiratory symptoms have low ventilatory function but those who do not complain have normal values. Cigarette smoking causes a transient increase in airway resistance, but the effect on bronchial clearance is variable. These observations do not support the Surgeon General's statement that cigarette smoking causes pulmonary emphysema or chronic bronchitis. A group of smokers with early signs of abnormal ventilatory function need to be kept under surveillance for appearance of either disease. So far, there is no report that chronic bronchitis or pulmonary emphysema has occurred in the course of surveying smokers.

VII. Cardiopulmonary function in smokers and nonsmokers.

The reported difference in ventilation/perfusion ratio, cardiac function, pulmonary circulation and surfactant between smokers and nonsmokers are not completely established. The significance of these differences has not been elucidated.

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VIII. Commentary on selected articles and their publicity.

The publications on Smoking and Health appearing in 1964, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1971, 1972 and 1973 have been scrutinized. The Surgeon General's statement that "cigarette smoking is the most important cause of chronic obstructive bronchopulmonary disease" should be revised to read as follows: "Cigarette smoking is one of the risk factors of pulmonary emphysema, chronic bronchitis and other chronic pulmonary disease." The other statements appearing in these publications have similarly been examined and reviewed.

The outcome of the publicity provided by Smoking and Health can be determined by noting editorials, reviews, commentary and resolutions that are appended to this section. Some of them have been selected to illustrate the extent to which the carefully worded statement of the Surgeon General has been understood wrongly to mean that cigarette smoking causes chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema.

IX. Recommendations. It is suggested by the reviewer that scientists, physicians and the general public be informed that cigarette smoking is one of several risk factors, rather than the most important cause of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema. The nature of investigation of the matter, as undertaken by the epidemiologist, the clinician, the pathologist, and the basic medical scientist, is outlined in this section.

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I. INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

That cigarette smoking is one of the important causes of lung diseases in general and of pulmonary emphysema in particular has been accepted by most physicians and the general public. The widespread distribution of the documents on Smoking and Health, prepared by the United States Public Health Service in 1964, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1971, 1972 and 1973, is the most significant factor in this state of affairs. These documents have been regarded as gospels summarizing the evidence that cigarette smoking is the most important of the causes of lung diseases.

There has been no published rebuttal of this statement. On the contrary, the following publications have contributed to the acceptance of the cause and effect relationship between smoking and lung disease: monographs dealing with the subject by the Royal College of Physicians (1962, 1971), Allen et al. (1960), Borgotta and Evans (1968), Diehl (1969), and Hedrick (1969), and review articles by Wallner (1963), Cherniack (1964), Terry (1964), Hay (1967), Horák (1969), Fletcher and Horn (1970), Gilgen and Saigot (1970), Rylander (1970), Rulhière (1971), Fréour and Coudray (1971), and Swartz (1971).

The major shortcoming of the evidence presented against cigarette smoking is the conglomeration of reports on specific diseases with non-specific entities. For example, observations on patients diagnosed as having pulmonary emphysema are mixed with mortality statistics derived from death certificates and with morbidity statistics based on symptomatology.

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A subject complaining of coughing and shortness of breath, a patient dying with a diagnosis of pulmonary emphysema appearing on the death certificate or with a postmortem diagnosis of pulmonary emphysema, and a patient subjected to functional tests indicating the presence of this disease have been treated in the same manner to arrive at the causation of the disease. This is not proper because of the uncertainty that all these patients indeed have pulmonary emphysema.

The primary purpose of this review article is to examine the scientific evidence that cigarette smoking is the most important of the causes of lung diseases. The articles cited by all the above-mentioned publications and other related ones have been re-examined. The information was classified according to the following factors:

a. Type of lung disease, such as pulmonary emphysema, chronic bronchitis and bronchitis-emphysema complex (also known as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease).

b. Nature of investigation: postmortem examination, antemortem measurement of lung function, morbidity statistics, and mortality statistics.

c. Source of information: normal human subject or patient; state or country of origin; nonsmoker or smoker; male or female; young or old; isolated tissue or intact animal.

d. Other causes of lung disease, such as air pollutants, occupational hazards, genetic factors and infections.

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The four items a-d are listed in the order of diminishing importance. The headings and subheadings include the above-listed terms, as well as the following: occurrence, non-occurrence, prevalence and concurrence. They are used to emphasize occurrence, of lung disease in nonsmokers, its non-occurrence in smokers, its prevalence both in smokers and in nonsmokers, and the concurrence of smoking and other risk factors.

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II. OCCURRENCE OF PULMONARY EMPHYSEMA IN NONSMOKERS

If the statement that cigarette smoking is an important cause of pulmonary emphysema is correct, then it would be rare to find nonsmokers who develop this disease. The literature has been examined and the following bibliographic lists are appended:

- No. 1. Pulmonary emphysema: etiology and pathogenesis.
- No. 2. Pulmonary emphysema: pathological features.
- No. 3. Pulmonary emphysema: clinical features.
- No. 4. Pulmonary emphysema: therapy.
- No. 5. Pulmonary emphysema: α_1 -antitrypsin deficiency.

The articles contained in the above lists relate to emphysema in general and do not report original investigations of its occurrence among nonsmokers and smokers. The information contained in these articles is important to recognize because the emphasis in this section is on pulmonary emphysema rather than cigarette smoking.

The observations concerning the role of smoking in the pathogenesis of pulmonary emphysema, specifically in patients diagnosed clinically and post mortem, are discussed in this section. The experimental attempts to produce emphysema in the animal are reviewed. It is surprising to note at the outset that these attempts have been unsuccessful, with the exception of one which has been widely publicized.

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II-A. POSTMORTEM EXAMINATION

In 1819 Laennec first described pulmonary emphysema as a clinical entity characterized by enlargement of air "vesicles" or air spaces. There is some controversy as to the priority of the recognition of the disease since Larson (1964) called attention to a description of gross pathology of emphysematous lung by Matthew Baillie, published in 1803. During the past 25 years there has been confusion in terminology for the lesions characteristic of pulmonary emphysema, chronic bronchitis and asthma. The definition by a committee of the American Thoracic Society has been generally accepted (Harris et al., 1962). The definition is as follows: emphysema is an anatomical alteration of the lung characterized by an abnormal enlargement of the air spaces distal to the terminal nonrespiratory bronchioli, accompanied by destructive changes in the alveolar walls.

Determination of the occurrence of pulmonary emphysema among nonsmokers can be derived from two sets of observations: patients dying of pulmonary emphysema confirmed by histologic examination; postmortem examination in deaths from various causes.

1. Selected patients with pulmonary emphysema. Sweet et al. (1961) reported the first correlation of pathologic patterns with smoking habits in patients dying of pulmonary emphysema in Missouri. Among 194 deaths, the sections from 91 subjects revealed centrilobular lesions specifically ectasia, destruction and departitioning of respiratory

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bronchioles. In 78 deaths, panlobular lesions were noted, consisting of progressive and uniform distention of all the terminal ducts and sacs throughout the secondary lobule. The remaining 25 deaths showed combination of centrilobular and panlobular emphysema. The use of tobacco was known in one-fifth of the patients. The results were as follows:

14 Centrilobular cases:	5 nonsmokers,	6 moderate	and 3 heavy smokers
19 Panlobular cases:	5 nonsmokers,	3 moderate	and 11 heavy smokers
5 Combined cases:	3 nonsmokers,	1 moderate	and 1 heavy smoker
<u>38 Total</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>15</u>

The above figures indicate that 34% of patients dying of pulmonary emphysema were nonsmokers.

Anderson et al. (1964, 1966) have reported a larger series of 110 patients with known smoking habits dying of pulmonary emphysema. This series, larger than the group reported by Sweet et al., showed a difference in distribution between centrilobular and panlobular lesions, as follows:

83 smokers:	38 panlobular	45 centrilobular
27 nonsmokers:	<u>24</u> "	<u>3</u> "
	62	48

Practically all lungs with centrilobular emphysema came from smokers, and panlobular emphysema occurred in random fashion in both smokers and nonsmokers. The incidence of pulmonary emphysema of either type in nonsmokers was 22%.

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2. Nonselected patients. Postmortem examination of patients who were not selected for investigation of pulmonary emphysema has been reported by several groups of investigators. Anderson et al. (1970) examined the lungs obtained from 80 non-smokers in Florida, ranging in age from 37 to 94 years. Twenty-four demonstrated some degree of parenchymal dilatation and disruption which were usually lobular in distribution. Panlobular emphysema of varying severity occurred in 20 patients and centrilobular in 4. The overall incidence of both forms of emphysema was 30% in the group of nonsmokers.

Auerbach et al. (1963, 1966) reported the results of their examination of lung tissue obtained from 1,582 autopsies performed from 1955 through 1960 at a Veterans Administration hospital in New Jersey. The results are expressed in terms of degree of rupture of alveolar septum, fibrosis and thickening of walls of small arteries and arterioles. There was no assessment of degree of panlobular or centrilobular emphysema, so that it is not possible to relate their observations with those of others. They concluded that these pathological changes were highly associated with cigarette smoking and all of them were found to increase with the age of the smoker. Although 120 of 1340 cases were nonsmokers, it is not possible to state how many of them can be regarded as showing lesions of pulmonary emphysema, similar to those reported by others.

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The later report of Auerbach et al. (1972) conformed with the usual practice of specifying if the total pathology of the lung signified emphysema. Between 1963 and 1970, 2,613 men and women who died of the disease were studied at autopsy in seven cooperating hospitals in New Jersey and New York. Their results in males were as follows:

176 nonsmokers	10% pulmonary emphysema	9% no emphysema
181 smoked < 20 cigarettes/day	87% " "	13% " "
658 smoked > 20 cigarettes/day	99.7% " "	0.3% " "

The statistics have been criticized by Panzer (1972).

The above results indicate that in unselected autopsy cases 10% of nonsmokers develop pulmonary emphysema. The 87 to 99% incidence of pulmonary emphysema among smokers is the highest ever reported. A 50 to 75% incidence among smokers has been reported by Thurlbeck (1963) from Canada, by Petty et al. (1967) from Colorado, by Ishikawa (1969) et al. from Canada, by Yamanaka (1970) from Japan, by McLaughlin and Tueller (1971) from California, by Otto et al. (1970) in Germany, and by Fingerland et al. (1971) in Czechoslovakia. The statistics for the last-mentioned series are as follows:

145 male nonsmokers	26% pulmonary emphysema
405 female nonsmokers	30% " "
109 male ex-smokers	50% " "
408 male smokers	50% " "

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The series reported from Czechoslovakia show a different incidence of pulmonary emphysema in autopsy of unselected patients from those reported by Auerbach et al. (1972) from the United States. The incidence of emphysema among nonsmokers is 2 to 3 times higher in Czechoslovakia than in the United States, and the incidence of emphysema is half as much in Czechoslovakia.

The series of autopsies performed by Alli (1971) in Nigeria indicate the following:

59 males	25.4% pulmonary emphysema
55 females	12.7% " "
<hr/> 114 total	<hr/> 19.3%

There is a low incidence of smoking among the above cases. The overall incidence of 19% emphysema is midway between the incidence for nonsmokers reported from the United States and Czechoslovakia.

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II. OCCURRENCE OF PULMONARY EMPHYSEMA IN NONSMOKERS

A. POSTMORTEM EXAMINATION

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II-B. ANTEMORTEM STUDIES

The extent of the occurrence of pulmonary emphysema among nonsmokers can be derived from a review of groups of patients with a diagnosis of pulmonary emphysema based on clinical studies. The reports are as follows:

Abbott <u>et al.</u> (1953)	250 males and females from Georgia:	41 nonsmokers
Mitchell (1962)	123 males and females	8 nonsmokers
Mitchell <u>et al.</u> (1964)	from Colorado:	
Kahana <u>et al.</u> (1963)	19 males from Canada:	1 nonsmoker
Seeborn and Bedell (1963)	10 males from Iowa:	0 nonsmoker
Antonio (1963)	16 males or females from Philippines:	4 nonsmokers
Boushy and Lewis (1964)	61 males and females from Michigan:	4 nonsmokers
Ray (1965)	360 males and females from Virginia:	8 nonsmokers
Burgess and Burgess (1966)	204 males and females from Rhode Island:	15 nonsmokers
Boushy <u>et al.</u> (1968)	49 males from Louisiana:	0 nonsmoker
Lépine and Myre (1969)	41 males or females from Canada:	0 nonsmoker
Saha and Jain (1970)	50 males and females from India:	8 nonsmokers

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The above reports are based on series numbering 10 to 360 patients with clinical diagnosis of pulmonary emphysema. In the total number of 1,183 selected patients, there are 89 nonsmokers. The incidence of 7.6% of nonsmokers among patients with pulmonary emphysema is lower than that based on postmortem examination (see Section II-A.)

Patients suffering from pulmonary emphysema have been investigated while inhaling cigarette smoke. The results have so far been conflicting. Bickerman and Barach (1954) compared the response of 91 patients suffering from chronic nontuberculous pulmonary disease, most of them having pulmonary emphysema, with that of 27 healthy subjects. The smoking of 3 cigarettes did not increase bronchospasm or impair ventilatory function. There was a reduction of vital capacity and of maximal breathing capacity in 10 patients who had bronchial asthma. Both measurements were increased in 10 patients with emphysema, in whom coughing provoked by smoking resulted in expectoration.

The observations of Eich et al. (1956, 1957) were made on 15 patients with pulmonary emphysema. After the smoking of one cigarette, there was an increase in airway resistance in 14 of them and no significant change in pulmonary compliance.

The above-cited observations do not necessarily imply that cigarette smoking leads to pulmonary emphysema. There are numerous data relating to the effects of cigarette smoking on lung function of healthy subjects that are discussed in Section VI.

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II-C. RISK FACTORS IN THE PATHOGENESIS OF PULMONARY EMPHYSEMA

That pulmonary emphysema may occur in nonsmokers can only be interpreted to mean that smoking is not the only important causative factor. There are five other factors that are as significant as cigarette smoking, namely: sex, age, genetic factors, infection, and air pollution. They can properly be described as risk factors which predispose a subject to the development of pulmonary emphysema. The first three are discussed in this section but the last two are dealt with in Section III because they contribute to the pathogenesis of chronic bronchitis as well as of pulmonary emphysema.

1. Sex and pulmonary emphysema. It has generally been accepted that pulmonary emphysema occurs predominantly in males. The routine postmortem examination shows the following incidence of the disease for male in relation to female subjects:-- 2:1 as determined by Smith (1965), 3:2 by Azcuy et al. (1962), and 1:1 by Snider et al. (1962). The emphysema registries show a higher ratio of 9:1 reported by Mitchell and Filley (1964), Burrows et al. (1965), and Webster et al. (1968). There were no differences in laboratory data and family history between males and females.

The smoking habits of females are discussed in three additional reports. Bedell and Seeborn (1960) described a group of 12 women with pulmonary edema, ranging in age from 31 to 65 years, two of whom were nonsmokers. Lindall et al. (1967) evaluated pulmonary function in 101 females without lung disease. The women smokers were found to have lower mid-maximal flow rates and ratios of forced expiratory volume to

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vital capacity, compared with nonsmokers. Carilli et al. (1973) reviewed chest films of 92 women and could note changes such as diffuse linear and nodular fibrosis in smokers that were not seen in nonsmokers. These observations are similar to those reported by others in males and do not detract from the original premise that there is a higher incidence of pulmonary emphysema in males. Anderson et al. (1972) reviewed a series of necropsy cases and concluded that sex has an effect on the incidence of emphysema over and above the difference between the sexes in the amount of smoking.

2. Aging and pulmonary emphysema. The high incidence of pulmonary emphysema in the aged has been discussed in a monograph (Gross, , 1964) and several review articles (Burrows, 1962; Cander and Blumenthal, 1963; Alvarez, 1964; Herberg, 1966; Niesenbaum, 1968). The mechanism by which aging leads to emphysema has not been identified. Degeneration and loss of elasticity occur, which are terms of a descriptive nature and do not explain how the aging operates as a risk factor.

3. Genetic factors. Pulmonary emphysema appears in white males more frequently than in the Negro. The relative incidence varies, depending on the manner of comparison. Counting of clinical cases reveals that the incidence in white males is 3 or 4 times more frequent than in Negro males (Murphy et al., 1962). Deaths from emphysema in white males are 10 times more frequent (Ray, 1965). The lower incidence in the Negro does not relate to dissimilar smoking habits or a different

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effect of smoking upon maximal terminal flow (Canter and Luchsinger, 1967, 1968). The Negro male has smaller vital capacity, which would not account for a lower incidence of pulmonary emphysema (Damon, 1966). The East Indians residing in Jamaica are reported to suffer more from the centrilobular type of pulmonary emphysema than the Chinese, Negro and white residents (Hayes and Summerell, 1969; Hayes, 1970).

A genetic defect has been identified in some patients with pulmonary emphysema. A deficiency in alpha-antitrypsin can be inherited and is believed to participate in the pathogenesis of pulmonary emphysema (see monograph by Eriksson, 1965, review article by Guenter et al., 1971 and bibliographic list no. 5). Patients have been reported to have pulmonary emphysema and alpha-antitrypsin deficiency who were nonsmokers: 2 out of 9 in Massachusetts (Talamo et al., 1968), 1 out of 8 in Washington (Bell, 1970), 1 out of 12 in England (Jones and Thomas, 1971), 1 out of 6 in Texas (Stevens et al., 1971), 3 out of 10 in Minnesota (Black et al., 1972). It has been proposed that cigarette smoking provokes the early onset of emphysema in subjects with this genetic defect (Levine et al., 1970; Mittman et al., 1971 a, b; Fallat et al., 1971, 1973; Fallat, 1972; Hutchison et al., 1971, 1972). However, the evidence is not unequivocal and is based on the coexistence of emphysema and deficiency of alpha-antitrypsin among smokers. Observations have been made which suggested that smoking caused emphysema in deficient subjects. There is no association between prevalence of pulmonary

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disease, incidence of antitrypsin deficiency and smoking habits (Geisler et al., 1972; Sano et al., 1972). Furthermore, some subjects with this genetic defect, who are smokers, do not show signs of pulmonary emphysema (Eriksson, 1965).

The identification of alpha-antitrypsin deficiency as a genetic defect in some patients with pulmonary emphysema raises the possibility of other defects which have not yet been identified (see review articles by Gedda, 1967, McKusick and Mutalik, 1968, and Larson et al., 1970). Patients with emphysema have been characterized by personality features (De Cencio et al., 1968), somatotype (Damon, 1961; Damon et al., 1962), baldness (Buechner et al., 1964), and longevity (Deutscher and Higgins, 1970). There are personality features which are inherited by the individual (Heath, 1958; De Cencio et al., 1968; Clark/1970; Ochsner and Damrau, 1970).

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II-D. EXPERIMENTAL PULMONARY EMPHYSEMA

The publicity surrounding the experimental induction of pulmonary emphysema by Auerbach and his collaborators has given the impression that the problem has been settled. Numerous attempts to study the matter have been made by others and the results have been negative, which have not been publicized. There is still considerable doubt that cigarette smoking can lead to pulmonary emphysema in experimental animals. The problems in induction of emphysema have been discussed by Strawbridge (1960a), Thurlbeck (1963), Boren (1965), Reif et al (1970) and Mittman (1972).

1. Experiments in the dog. Two groups of dogs have been exposed to cigarette smoke through a tracheostomy tube by Auerbach and his collaborators: ten dogs for 420 days (Auerbach, 1967, 1969; Auerbach et al., 1967, 1968, 1970; Cahan and Kirman, 1968) and 97 dogs up to 876 days (Hammond et al., 1970; Frasca et al., 1971). The results are entirely histopathological in nature, which the investigators have interpreted to indicate pulmonary emphysema. Their interpretation has been criticized by other histopathologists and nothing can be added to this controversy (see Section III). One criticism that has been entirely ignored is the lack of measurements of lung function, which other investigators have developed for application to the dog and other animal species. **1005051347**

Anderson et al. (1964) and Hernandez et al. (1966) exposed greyhounds to hyperinflation of the lung or cigarette smoke. Lungs from

control animals demonstrated significant amounts of naturally occurring disease. The lungs from animals exposed to cigarette smoke showed lesions that were inflammatory in nature. Although there was parenchymal disruption, the pattern of smoke exposure employed with the dog is so different from the habit in man that the authors could not readily transfer their conclusion to apply to the human form of emphysema. Rockey and Speer (1966) and Syzganov et al. (1971) made similar observations and conclusions in the dog. The results of applying a smoking machine in dogs, which simulate those of human inhalation, have not been reported (Bair et al., 1969). Marco et al. (1971) and Mass et al. (1972) induced experimental emphysema in dogs, using leukocyte homogenate. Their findings are entirely histological in nature.

2. Experiments in the rat. Both histological and physiological techniques have been applied to the rat lung to demonstrate conclusively that pulmonary emphysema has developed. The model consists of a combination of tracheal ligation and intratracheal injection of papain. After 4 to 6 weeks, there is an increase of functional residual capacity and the lung shows histological signs of emphysema (Palecek et al., 1967). Concurrent administration of progestational agents retards the development of emphysema (Ito and Aviado, 1968a; Aviado and McKinney, 1969; Aviado and Carrillo, 1969; Shore and Aviado, 1969; Inoh and Aviado, 1971). The concurrent administration of cigarette smoke does not influence the emphysematous

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process (Ito and Aviado, 1968b; Aviado et al., 1970). Inhalation of cigarette smoke daily for 8 weeks does not increase functional residual capacity. In these rats exposed to cigarette smoke, there is an increase in pulmonary resistance, which is discussed further in another section relating to the airways.

The inhalation of nitrogen dioxide in the rat causes the development of pulmonary emphysema (Freeman and Haydon, 1964; Haydon et al., 1965; Freeman, 1968; Freeman et al., 1968 a, b, c; 1969). The concentration necessary to induce the lesions is approximately 1,000 times the amount of nitrogen dioxide present in cigarette smoke (Haagen-Smit et al., 1959; Bokhoven and Niessen, 1961). The phenomenon is of toxicological interest when nitrogen dioxide is present as a pollutant or a chemical fume that is inhaled (von Oettingen, 1941; Lowry and Schuman, 1956; Becklake et al., 1957; Gray, 1959). In this context, nitrogen dioxide has the following effects in rats and other animal species: reduced resistance to bacterial pneumonia (Ehrlich and Henry, 1968; Henry et al., 1969, 1970), alteration in collagen fibrils and basement membranes of the lung (Stephens et al., 1971); increase in metabolic activity of lung tissue (Buckley and Loosli, 1969); increase in nonelastic resistance of the lung (Haydon et al., 1967); and increase in lung tissue antibody in the blood (Balchum et al., 1965; Boren et al., 1965). Gross et al. (1968 a, b) did not observe any acceleration by nitrogen oxide of experimental silicosis caused by coal or blast furnace stack dust in rats.

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Cadmium is another constituent of cigarette smoke (Nandi et al., 1969). Exposure to cadmium fumes causes lesions in the human lung similar to those of emphysema (Bonnell, 1955; Bonnell et al., 1959; Smith et al., 1960). However, the phenomenon has not been examined in rats or other animal species to determine whether the amount of cadmium in cigarette smoke is sufficient to produce pulmonary lesions.

3. Experiments in other animal species. Experimental emphysema in several animal species has been reported but not the influence of cigarette smoke. The following species have been used: hamster (Goldring et al., 1968; Gross and de Treville, 1969), rabbit (Strawbridge, 1960 B and C; Boatman and Martin, 1965), piglet (Glauser and Glauser, 1969); horse (Gillespie et al., 1964, 1966; Gillespie and Tyler, 1967; Eberly et al., 1966; McLaughlin et al., 1965), and cow (Carlson et al., 1968; Carlson et al., 1972).

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III. CHRONIC BRONCHITIS: CONCURRENCE OF CIGARETTE SMOKING INHALATION OF POLLUTANTS AND INFECTION

Chronic bronchitis is a clinical disorder characterized by excessive mucus secretion. It may appear concurrently with pulmonary emphysema, so that the major problem in the diagnosis is to establish that bronchitis is the predominant disease.

As in pulmonary emphysema, cigarette smoking is one of the risk factors in the pathogenesis of chronic bronchitis. Two other risk factors, air pollution and infections, are discussed in this section. At the present time, it is not possible to rank these risk factors in the order of their importance.

The primary concern of this section is chronic bronchitis. The literature on postmortem, clinical and animal investigations relating to chronic bronchitis is reviewed here. Three bibliographic lists are appended:

No. 6. Chronic bronchitis: general aspects.

No. 7. Bronchial carcinoma.

No. 8. Air pollutants and lung disease.

The early cellular changes in the bronchial mucosa and secretion in chronic bronchitis have been confused with metaplasia, so that it is important to exclude consideration of neoplastic disease from the following paragraphs.

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III-A. POSTMORTEM EXAMINATION

The basic histopathologic change of chronic bronchitis is generalized hypertrophy and hyperplasia of the mucus-secreting bronchial glands throughout the trachea and bronchi. There are also diffuse inflammatory changes consisting principally of increased number of mononuclear cells in the thickened tracheobronchial submucosa and metaplastic epithelial changes with loss of cilia (Reid 1954, 1960; Marcatili et al., 1967; Thurlbeck and Angus 1967).

There are only two reports of postmortem examination and known smoking habits of patients with chronic bronchitis. Mitchell et al. (1966) reported 64 autopsies, all but one subject having been smokers and 91% for more than 20 pack-years (no of pack daily x years). Niewoehner et al. (1972) reported 4 fatal cases of regional chronic bronchitis, all of the patients having been chronic smokers.

All the other postmortem observations compare the histological features of the bronchi of smokers and nonsmokers, most of them healthy, Chang (1956, 1957, 1958) in 105 random autopsies noted distended goblet cells in 25 out of 71 smokers (35%) but only in 6 out of 34 nonsmokers (17.6%). The average length of cilia was shorter than in nonsmokers and the smokers' epithelium was thicker than that of nonsmokers. The hypertrophy of the bronchial mucus glands, characteristic of chronic bronchitis, has been reported to be more frequent among smokers. The gland/wall ratio was significantly raised

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in 35 heavy smokers, but there was no difference between 23 nonsmokers and 15 moderate (less than 20 cigarettes/day) smokers (Thurlbeck et al., 1963). A similar conclusion was arrived at in a larger group of cases, also in Canada like the previous group consisting of 40 nonsmokers and 111 smokers, including 58 heavy smokers (Thurlbeck and Angus, 1964). In another group, reported from England, the mean percentage volume of bronchial mucus glands was significantly greater in 106 smokers than in 73 nonsmokers (Dunnill and Ryder 1971; Ryder et al., 1971). In a smaller group, from Ohio, there was no difference in percentages of such glands between 11 smokers and 13 nonsmokers (Sobonya and Kleinerman, 1972). Ido et al. (1959) reported that percentages of goblet cells increased in light smokers but decreased in heavy smokers.

Squamous metaplasia of bronchial epithelium is commonly seen in various pathologic processes as a result of atypical epithelial regeneration. In 128 unselected autopsies, the general incidence of metaplasia was 32%; the highest incidence was 71% in patients with primary lung carcinoma and the next highest was 41% in patients with chronic inflammatory disease of the lung. In the same group, 39% of nonsmokers had metaplasia and 45% of smokers had a similar epithelial change (Weller, 1955). The subsequent reports show the incidence of metaplasia to be as follows:

Sanderad, 1958	8% of 58 smokers	54% of 39 nonsmokers
Cross <u>et al.</u> , 1961	16% of 197 smokers	8% of 33 nonsmokers
Spain, 1969, 1970	65% of 52 smokers	50% of 36 nonsmokers

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Auerbach et al. (1961; 1962a, b; 1968) have reported their results in terms of nature of the nucleus relevant to neoplastic changes. Their observations did not include those relating to bronchitis.

The incidence of goblet cell metaplasia is about equal in smokers and nonsmokers (Karpick et al., 1970). The proliferation of epithelial cells has been reported in the palate (Chapman and Redish, 1960) and larynx (Ryan et al., 1955) of smokers.

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III-B. ANTEMORTEM STUDIES

Chronic bronchitis diagnosed clinically by measurements of lung function is seen both in smokers and in nonsmokers. Simonson (1965) reported a series from Sweden consisting of the following: of 30 males, 2 were nonsmokers and of 35 females 5 were nonsmokers. Half of the patients reported some allergy connection and one-third were exposed to dusts in their occupations.

A coordinated study in four Canadian cities included 216 patients with chronic bronchitis, 2 of whom were nonsmokers. In the follow-up data of the Toronto group, although the patients as a whole showed a decrease in ventilatory function and in diffusing capacity, 10 of the 44 patients had stopped smoking and a further 6 had reduced their cigarette consumption (Bates et al., 1966). No detectable improvement occurred following the reduction of smoking.

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Of 260 patients with chronic bronchitis reported in Germany there was a higher proportion of nonsmokers than in other countries. Wendel (1968) counted 66 of these patients who were nonsmokers. In England, Simpson (1965) reported that 18 out of 157 patients were nonsmokers, and Caird et al. (1972) stated that out of 47 patients 18 were nonsmokers. In Egypt, Megaked (1966) reported that 8 out 65 bronchitic patients were nonsmokers. In the United States, Massaro and Bottoms (1967) noted that 27 out of 327 patients were nonsmokers. The overall incidence of nonsmokers in all these reports is 13% of bronchitic patients.

Reports from Japan (Shiota et al., 1966), the United States (Burrows and Earle, 1969; Brinkmann and Block 1968, 1972) and England (Jones et al., 1967; Fletcher, 1968) indicated a high incidence of smokers among patients with chronic bronchitis but the exact figures were not given.

Bronchial biopsy has been performed in patients with chronic bronchitis. There was a higher incidence of mucus gland hypertrophy in smokers than in nonsmokers (Megahed et al., 1967). A few patients with regional bronchitis have been described but the number is too small to allow evaluation of significance of smoking (Anthonisen et al., 1968; Niewoehner et al., 1972).

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III-C. EXAMINATION OF SPUTUM

There is an increase in the amount of expectoration in patients with chronic bronchitis. The observations relating to cigarette smoking consist of the cellular components of the sputum. Vassar *et al.* (1960) reported an increase in fluorescent histiocytes in the sputum of cigarette smokers which were absent in that of nonsmokers. They suggested that the fluorescence might be due to the presence of polycyclic hydrocarbons bound to the lipid in the cytoplasm of the histiocyte. Roque and Pickren (1968) performed a histochemical study of lung biopsies. In the histiocytes (also known as alveolar macrophages) of smokers, there was a loss of oxidoreductases and hydrolases that was directly proportional to the amount of fluorescent material stored in the cells.

Masin and Masin (1966) examined sputum specimens and observed an increase in the proportion of lipophages in the smokers as compared with the nonsmokers. They explained the difference as due to a combined effect of irritation of the alveolar lining, increased turnover of alveolar cells with increased injury to macrophages and shift in the relative proportion of lipophages. Alveolar macrophages obtained by endobronchial lavage of cigarette smokers and nonsmokers were examined with the electron microscope (Pratt *et al.*, 1971). In smokers the inclusions are heterogeneous and measure from 0.1 to 20 μ in diameter; the inclusions in nonsmokers are mostly round or oval and measure from 0.1 to 2.0 μ .

There is an increase in incidence of metaplasia of bronchial epithelial cells in the sputum of smokers (Robbins, 1966; Fullmer, 1968; Nasiell, 1968; Rimmingen, 1968). Since metaplasia also occurs in nonsmokers, it is

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not possible to attribute to smoking the presence of cells thus affected.

Fullmer et al., (1969) observed an increase in incidence of bronchial and bronchiolar spirals, fibrils and casts in smokers who were suffering from chronic bronchitis as compared with nonsmokers.

The other techniques for the examination of sputum concern sputum purulence (Miller, 1963), protein turnover (Bonomo and D'Addabbo, 1964), electrolyte content (Nicolas, 1964) and concentration of neuraminic acid (Reid, 1967). The influence of smoking on these parameters has not been investigated.

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III-D. AIR POLLUTANTS AS A RISK FACTOR

The role of air pollutants in the pathogenesis of chronic bronchitis is discussed in the articles listed in bibliographic list no. 8. Briefly, the association of this condition with air pollutants is similar to that with cigarette smoking. There is a parallel relationship between the incidence of chronic bronchitis and either the degree of pollution in the air or the amount of cigarette smoking (Anderson 1962).

The incidence of chronic bronchitis in the general population has been correlated with the following indices of air pollution. Fairbairn and Reid (1958) reported that among London postmen disablement and death were related to the frequency of fog and presumably the level of air pollution. Schoettlin (1962) observed that the prevalence of chronic bronchitis among elderly males was higher among those exposed to five occupational factors: cooking fats, gasoline and oils, coal dust and welding fumes. Among American male college students the incidence of chronic bronchitis detected by evaluation of respiratory function was correlated significantly with ambient temperature (Spodnik et al., 1966). Levels of sulfur dioxide in the air showed a positive correlation with incidence of respiratory illness in the United States (McCarroll et al., 1967; Heimbach, 1971).

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The importance of air pollution and cigarette smoking has been assessed by some investigators. Winkelstein (1969), Motley (1971),

Motley and Yanda (1966) and Cohen et al. (1972) have the opinion that cigarette smoking is more significant than air pollution in causing chronic bronchitis. Their evidence is not based on a comparison with subjects free from exposure to pollutants. The experience of Phelps and Koike (1962) in the Tokyo-Yokohama episode of asthmatic bronchitis is unique in that American soldiers who were heavy smokers were exposed to air pollutants. After they were transferred to the United States, although they continued smoking, their bronchitis was relieved. In this episode, air pollution is more important than cigarette smoking in causing bronchitis.

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III-E. INFECTION AS A RISK FACTOR

The basic lesion in chronic bronchitis is inflammation, which is largely due to pathogens. The infectious process may either be the primary cause of the inflammation or may supercede the initial irritation of the bronchial mucosa by chemical substances. There are defence mechanisms which protect the bronchial passages from bacterial or viral infections (see reviews by Green, 1968 a, b, and Rylander, 1969). The process of clearance of bronchial passages is accomplished by the ciliated epithelium and the mucus-secreting goblet cells. The effect of cigarette smoking on mucociliary clearance is discussed in Section VI. The next paragraphs discuss the influence of cigarette smoking on the bronchial infections, which in turn would lead to chronic bronchitis.

The incidence of the common cold is not higher in smokers than in nonsmokers (Kler, 1945). Among 143 allergic subjects between 18 and 35 years of age, who were challenged with infectious secretions taken from patients with a common cold, 45% developed colds as compared with 31% among 693 nonallergic individuals, who were inoculated in the same way. Among both groups of subjects, 35% of smokers and 34% of nonsmokers developed colds, indicating that smoking did not influence the susceptibility to the common cold (Dowling *et al.*, 1957). This is the most important evidence that smoking does not increase the susceptibility to the common cold.

Prevalence studies have produced the opposite conclusion. On the basis of symptoms of acute respiratory infections, the following groups show

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a higher incidence among smokers than nonsmokers: 118 adults residing in Cleveland (Boake, 1958); 175 student nurses in Canada (Parnell et al., 1966); 191 high school students in New Jersey (Haynes et al., 1966); 1,811 male college students in South Carolina (Finklea et al., 1969).

There are other observations relating to the influence of smoking on the incidence of bronchial infections. Air pollution has been shown by Douglas and Waller (1966) to relate to frequency of respiratory infection in children residing in London. The antibacterial activity of the saliva is enhanced by thiocyanate ion which may be absorbed from cigarette smoke (Courant, 1967). Patients with pulmonary emphysema show an elevation of immunoglobulin A(Ig A) in the blood, which has been interpreted as a sign of the presence of bronchopulmonary infection (Biegel and Krumholz, 1968). The concentration of immunoglobulin A in the saliva is also elevated in patients with chronic pulmonary disease, but this was not influenced by cigarette smoking (Lewis et al., 1970). In the same study cigarette smoking suppressed production of immunoglobulin A in the saliva of normal subjects. These observations on immunoglobulin do not explain the association between cigarette smoking and respiratory infections.

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III-F. ANIMAL EXPERIMENTS RELATING TO CHRONIC BRONCHITIS

There is no available model in the laboratory which mimics the pathological and functional features of the human form of chronic bronchitis. The reported experiments pertain to one of several underlying processes in chronic bronchitis, such as mucus secretion, bronchial epithelial changes, nature of the alveolar lining and the influence of infection (see reviews by Pattle, 1958, 1965 and Green, 1968 and 1969). There are no reported measurements of pulmonary function in these animals to validate the claim that the experiments can be applied to elucidate the effects of cigarette smoking in man.

1. Rabbit. Proetz (1939) reported the first observations on the effect of cigarette smoke on the airways of the rabbit. By visual examination he noted the accumulation of tar, chiefly in the nasal cavity. Holland et al. (1958, 1963) impregnated cigarettes with radioactive arsenic to trace absorption of smoke in the rabbit. Exposure for one to two years caused pathological changes in the respiratory epithelium of the nose and tracheobronchial mucosa, but no measurements were made prior to sacrificing the animals. The remaining observations in the rabbit relate to the alveolar macrophages investigated in vitro (Heese and Myrvik, 1967; Myrvik and Evans, 1967; Weissbecker et al., 1969). The water-soluble constituents of cigarette smoke depress protein synthesis in rabbit alveolar cells (Yeager, 1969). The depressant action of cigarette smoke on phagocytic activity of alveolar macrophages may be prevented by glutathione and cysteine (Green and Carolyn, 1967; Green, 1968 a, b).

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2. Guinea pig. Rylander (1968, 1969) used the guinea pig to investigate the pulmonary defence mechanism against airborne bacteria. Animals exposed to cigarette smoke showed a reduction in the number of radioactive bacteria killed, as compared with the controls. This was interpreted as an effect of smoke on the mucus flow which clears the lung. There was no difference in the reduction of viable bacteria, indicating that the efficiency of the bactericidal mechanisms had not been impaired. In a subsequent report, Rylander (1971) described a reduction in the number of free lung cells in the fluid used for lavaging the airways. However, after two to four weeks of exposure there was an increase in the number of macrophages. This biphasic response indicates a tolerance to the reduction of cells in response to cigarette smoke. An increase in the number of pulmonary cells from chronic exposure has been reported by Flint *et al.* (1971). The depression of oxidative phosphorylation of pulmonary cells noted by Kyle and Riesen (1970) after 2 1/2 days' exposure needs to be examined in animals exposed for several weeks.

3. Rat. Exposure of the rat to cigarette smoke for six weeks produced an increase in the number of goblet cells in the trachea and intrapulmonary airways (Lamb and Reid, 1969). The effect cannot be induced by inhalation of extremes of temperature, indicating that this is not the important factor in smoke which increases the number of goblet cells (Jones *et al.*, 1971). The addition of phenylmethyloxadiazole to the tobacco protected the rat from the increase in goblet cell count. This was the first effective means of protection found against changes produced in bronchial epithelium by tobacco smoke (Jones *et al.*, 1972). The condition of pulmonary

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macrophages in response to air pollutants other than cigarette smoke has been studied by Gross et al. (1969).

4. Mouse. Leuchtenberger et al. (1958, 1960) and Leuchtenberger and Leuchtenberger (1965) reported the cytochemical and cytological alteration in the bronchi of mice exposed to cigarette smoke. The presence of bronchitis was diagnosed by appearance of proliferative epithelial changes and metaplasia. These changes relate to carcinogenesis rather than to bronchitis. There is a decrease in bacterial clearance following an acute exposure to cigarette smoke (Laurenzi et al., 1963). There is an increase in susceptibility to naturally acquired infection of the respiratory tract in mice exposed to cigarette smoke (Wynder et al., 1968). In experiments on mice challenged with Klebsiella pneumoniae or Diplococcus pneumoniae, the decrease in resistance was shown to be transitory. When the time interval between smoke exposure and infectious challenge was lengthened from 1 to 48 hours, there was no demonstrable decrease in resistance to respiratory infection (Spurgash et al., 1968).

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5. Dog. Auerbach et al. (1967) and Frasca et al. (1968 a, b) reported the histological and ultrastructural changes in the bronchial epithelium of dogs exposed to cigarette smoke for 24 to 421 days. The atypical nuclei noted in the epithelium do not relate to chronic bronchitis and are beyond the scope of this review.

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III. CHRONIC BRONCHITIS: CONCURRENCE OF CIGARETTE SMOKING,
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F. ANIMAL EXPERIMENTS RELATING TO CHRONIC BRONCHITIS

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IV. PULMONARY EMPHYSEMA-BRONCHITIS COMPLEX

Pulmonary emphysema-bronchitis complex, also known as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, is discussed in this section separately from the sections dealing with its individual components (Sections II and III). It has been the practice of the United States Public Health Service to base their mortality statistics on a combination of pulmonary emphysema and chronic bronchitis even though separate death rates are available. It appears that combining the two entities under a single name has improved the results of statistical analysis in establishing the high incidence of deaths from pulmonary disease among smokers as compared with nonsmokers. The publications relating to the pulmonary emphysema-bronchitis complex contained in additional bibliographic lists as follows:

- No. 9. Pulmonary emphysema-bronchitis complex: etiology and pathology.
- No. 10. Pulmonary emphysema-bronchitis complex: clinical studies.

Most of the publications in the above-mentioned lists emphasize the difference between the two entities, but the practice of combining both in mortality statistics has not been discontinued in the United States and has also been adopted in foreign countries.

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IV-A. MORTALITY STATISTICS IN THE UNITED STATES

In 1958 Dorn reported the mortality experience of male policy holders of U. S. Government Life Insurance during the 2 1/2-year period 1954-1956.. The death rate for persons who had smoked regularly was 36% greater than that for persons who had never smoked. Expressed in another way, with 1.00 as the death rate of nonsmokers,, that of smokers was 1.36. The mortality ratios for the diseases of the lung were as follows: cancer of the lung, 9.85, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 3.27. It was on this basis that the United States Public Health Service founded their conclusion that cigarette smoking causes cancer of the lung and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. The mortality ratio of deaths from coronary heart disease was 1.63 and it is on this lower ratio that cigarette smoking was regarded as a risk factor. It will be noted that the mortality ratio of chronic lung disease is closer to that of heart disease than to that of lung carcinoma, so that it would have been more logical to draw a similar conclusion for chronic lung disease and heart disease. The subsequent publications of Dorn (1959, 1960, 1961), Kahn (1961) and Weir and Dunn (1970) recounted these mortality ratios and called attention to the declining death rate from disease of the respiratory system since 1900 (from 26% in 1900 to 8% in 1959). However, during the past decade the death rate increased significantly for a group of chronic respiratory diseases, including chronic bronchitis, emphysema, fibrosis and pneumonia.

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The second mortality study, in which 1,078,894 persons were enrolled, was conducted by the American Cancer Society in 1959 and 1960. The mortality rate was higher for smokers than for nonsmokers. The mortality ratio for the pulmonary emphysema-bronchitis complex among smokers as compared with nonsmokers was 3.27 (Hammond and Horn, 1958; Hammond, 1959, 1964, 1966). The details of the statistical analysis of the mortality figures are contained in the publications relating to Smoking and Health. The regional analyses have been published separately for Georgia (Hammond and Letton, 1965), Illinois (Hammond and Street, 1964), Iowa (Hammond and Stocks, 1964), Kansas (Hammond et al., 1964), Minnesota (Hammond et al., 1965), Missouri (Hammond and Wilson, 1965), New York State (Hammond et al., 1965), and Ohio (Hammond and Gerber, 1965). The similarities in the mortality statistics of these areas have been emphasized but their dissimilarities have been ignored.

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IV-B. MORTALITY STATISTICS IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES

The frequency of fatal chronic pulmonary disease varies in different countries (Reid and Fletcher, 1971). There is a wide range in the sex ratio of death in males and females, from 2.0 in Japan to 9.9 in Finland, with Canada, Great Britain and the United States between the extremes. These variations do not relate entirely to differences in cigarette consumption but indicate the association of other factors, some identified and others unidentified.

1. Canada. A questionnaire sent to 92,000 veterans from 1956 to 1962 revealed a higher death rate from pulmonary disease among both smokers and nonsmokers (Canadian Department of National Health and Welfare, 1966; Best ^{a, b, c} et al., 1967). The mortality ratio for all smokers as compared with nonsmokers was 1.33. The ratios for specific diseases were as follows: lung cancer, 14.91; bronchitis and emphysema, 8.71; and coronary heart disease, 1.60. The results of this survey were included in the report of the United States Public Health Service. As in the United States, an increasing number of deaths in Canada during the past decade have been due to chronic obstructive disease. The provincial statistics vary in the assignment of deaths due to pulmonary emphysema. Manitoba having the highest proportion of deaths caused by emphysema and Ontario the highest proportion of deaths due to chronic bronchitis. Cigarette consumption when expressed per person (15 years of age and over) does not correlate with the distribution of chronic pulmonary obstructive disease (Anderson, 1963, 1968).

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2. Great Britain. The results of a questionnaire sent to 59,600 physicians indicate a relationship between cigarette smoking and mortality rates (Doll and Hill, 1964 a, b). A total number of 111 physicians died of chronic bronchitis. The standardized death rates per 1,000 were as follows: all men, 0.34; nonsmokers, 0.05; all smokers, 0.37; cigarette smokers, 0.54; mixed smokers, 0.33; and pipe or cigar smokers, 0.15. The death rate of smokers is higher than that of nonsmokers. It was recognized by the authors in an earlier report (1956) that some of the excess mortality among cigarette smokers might be due to a tendency to diagnose chronic bronchitis rather than some other respiratory disease in patients with a chronic cough.

3. Israel. The mortality statistics attributed to chronic bronchitis or to emphysema from 1960 to 1964 have been reviewed by Cohen (1967). There has been a rise in such deaths, which are more frequent among immigrants from Africa and Asia than among those from Europe. The author attempted to relate the differences among immigrants to smoking habits surveyed in 1958. The heavy smokers, those using more than 20 cigarettes daily, constituted 27% of all smokers emigrating from Asia and Africa, and 17% of those from Europe. The interpolation of results from another decade has been questioned. Cigarette smoking is not the most important factor accounting for the difference, because the frequency of lung cancer did not show a parallel distribution. The author concluded that the incidence of malnutrition and infection among immigrants from Asia and Africa is a more important factor in contributing to the higher incidence of lung disease.

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IV-C. CRITIQUE OF MORTALITY STATISTICS

There are four considerations in accepting the mortality statistics of chronic lung disease to support the thesis that cigarette smoking is one of the important causes of pulmonary emphysema, and chronic bronchitis. They are as follows:

1. Sources of error in filing death certificate. The determination of the cause of death is based on the opinion of the physician signing the certificate. The postmortem examination and the clinical picture would establish the diagnosis of pulmonary emphysema or chronic bronchitis. However, the majority of the certificates state the cause of death on the basis of symptomatology, which may not necessarily identify the cause of death. The increase in mortality is dependent to a great extent upon more frequent diagnosis based on incomplete pulmonary function tests and symptomatology rather than upon a true increase in incidence (Barach, 1964; Barach and Segal, 1968; Barach, 1971). For pulmonary emphysema Rosenblatt (1970, 1972) explained the increase in mortality to be an artifact produced by revision of the International List of Causes of Death in 1949, permitting emphysema to be accepted as a primary cause of death. The widespread publicity given to emphysema in scientific and popular publications and the Social Security compensation for disability from emphysema contribute to the record of the sudden increase of deaths from this disease.

2. Influence of air pollution on mortality statistics. The mortality statistics for the entire United States have been handled in their entirety,

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ignoring important regional differences. There are differences in death rates from pulmonary emphysema and chronic bronchitis which relate to concentrations of socioeconomic classes, provided that air pollutants remain constant (Zeidberg et al., 1967). Comparison of mortality statistics in selected areas of the United States with differences in the level of air pollution reveal that environmental pollutants are important in influencing the death rate (Winkelstein et al., 1967; Buell et al., 1967; Hickey et al., 1967). In Great Britain the incidence of mortality rate from chronic bronchitis is correlated significantly with the level of air pollution (Fry, 1954; Pemberton and Goldberg, 1954; Reid, 1956; Crofton, 1965).

3. Factors influencing prognosis of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema. The most widely known factor that influences the prognosis of a patient with chronic pulmonary disease is cigarette smoking. There are other factors that are equally important and even more so, such as age, sex, geographical altitude, occurrence of cardiac complications, and extent of respiratory insufficiency (Burrows and Earle, 1964; Mitchell et al., 1964; Renzetti et al., 1966; Sukumalchantra et al., 1966; Renzetti, 1967; Tanner, 1967; Asmundsson and Kilburn, 1969; Davis and McClement 1969; Markush, 1969). The role of each of these factors in determining the longevity of patients with chronic pulmonary disease has been determined, but their importance relative to cigarette smoking is not known.

4. Inherent characteristics of cigarette smokers. It has been stated in Section II that smokers may have genetic factors which account for the higher incidence of pulmonary emphysema as compared with nonsmokers.

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Although some have been identified, others have not. In a recent study the low incidence of pulmonary emphysema among Seventh Day Adventists, has been explained largely by the fact that they are nonsmokers (Dysinger and Lemon, 1963; Lemon and Walden, 1966). The possibility that members of the families of this religious order may have inherited a trait that renders them resistant to pulmonary disease has not been excluded. The mortality encountered in alcoholics has been reported to be associated with a high incidence of smoking (Rankin et al., 1969). Excessive drinkers are usually heavy smokers (Bailey et al., 1969). Although there are known common causes of death in the alcoholic, chronic pulmonary disease is not one of them. Opium smokers develop chronic obstruction (Da Costa et al., 1971, 1972). The extent of alcoholism and drug abuse has not been considered in the case of smokers dying of chronic pulmonary disease.

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The morbidity statistics are derived from the analysis of a questionnaire on the occurrence of respiratory symptoms or from examination of individuals who undergo a simple test of ventilatory function.

All these surveys show a high incidence of respiratory symptoms and subnormal ventilatory function in smokers as compared with nonsmokers.

This is one basis for concluding that cigarette smoking is one of the important causes of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, also referred to in the preceding section as the pulmonary emphysema-chronic bronchitis complex.

It should be emphasized that the prevalence of respiratory symptoms among smokers ranges from 10 to 40% in various surveys, and that 60 to 90% of smokers do not complain of coughing, expectoration or shortness of breath. Those that do complain do not necessarily suffer from chronic bronchitis or pulmonary emphysema because these symptoms are also characteristic of other chronic pulmonary diseases, such as bronchial asthma, pulmonary tuberculosis and other specific forms of infection of the lung. In the absence of such diseases, the symptoms may originate from exposure to industrial hazards. Inhalation of dust particles and of pollutants has been ignored in attempts to relate cigarette smoking to respiratory symptoms. The following bibliographic lists are appended containing articles relating to morbidity studies and industrial hazards in general:

No. 11. Morbidity studies.

No. 12. Industrial hazards.

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V-A. SPECIFIC FORMS OF PULMONARY DISEASE

Pulmonary emphysema and chronic bronchitis as separate diseases are discussed in Sections II and III respectively. The other forms of chronic pulmonary disease which have been investigated in smokers are discussed in this section. The monograph by Mork (1962), dealing with a comparative study of respiratory disease in England, Wales and Norway, summarizes the literature on the role of smoking in causing chronic pulmonary disease.

1. Pulmonary tuberculosis. In England, mortality from pulmonary tuberculosis in middle and later life is higher for males than for females. Lowe (1956) noted a higher proportion of smokers among tuberculous patients than among nontuberculous controls and concluded that smoking is an important cause of the breakdown of healed or quiescent respiratory tuberculosis in adults. Confirmation of the association has been reported by Edwards (1957) in England, by Shah et al. (1959) and Viswanathan et al. (1965) in India, by Nakajima (1966) in Japan, by Lawther (1966) in the Netherlands, by Adelstein and Rimington (1967) in England, and by Sussmann (1967) in Germany. Snider et al. (1971) reviewed 4,092 patients discharged from a tuberculosis sanitarium in Chicago and found no correlation between cigarette smoking and chronic airway obstruction. There is a high incidence of emphysema in tuberculous patients but a cause and effect relationship has not been established (Lancaster and Tomashefski, 1963; Katz and Kohnofsky, 1964; Geiser and Steinmann, 1969).

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2. Pulmonary fibrosis. This rare disease has been examined for its occurrence among smokers and nonsmokers. Cullen *et al.* (1965) reported two nonsmokers in a group of 12 patients from New York. Weiss (1967, 1969) listed six nonsmokers in a group of 31 patients from Pennsylvania. Among 100 asbestos textile workers in Pennsylvania six nonsmokers were included among the 35 patients diagnosed as having pulmonary fibrosis (Weiss, 1971). A high incidence of smokers has been reported among patients with pulmonary fibrosis in Guyana (Miller *et al.*, 1968, 1971) and Rumania (Lupu *et al.*, 1966).

3. Bronchial asthma and allergy to tobacco. A few asthmatic patients have been reported in the literature who are allergic to tobacco (Jimenez-Diaz and Cuenza, 1935; Rosen, 1946; Rosen and Levy, 1950; Segal and Dulfano, 1965; Blue, 1970). Skin tests against tobacco extract are usually positive in smokers regardless of whether asthma is present or absent (Pavlik and Cermakova, 1964). The presence of anti-tobacco precipitins has been reported in over half of those who smoke (Aiache *et al.*, 1972). The significance of these observations has not been elucidated. The coexistence of bronchial asthma and pulmonary emphysema has been demonstrated but this does not imply that the former is a cause of the latter (Lowell, 1959; Winkenwerder *et al.*, 1962; Rowe and Rowe, 1965; Horowitz, 1969; Preiser *et al.*, 1969).

4. Other diseases. Spontaneous pneumothorax occurs in smokers. Legrand *et al.* (1971) postulated that smoking is the cause of the disease, whereas Zivy (1970), Zivy and Fournier (1970) and Berard and Emonot (1972) discount it. In a survey of 185 patients with pulmonary chickenpox in Australia,

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smoking was a highly significant associated factor (Knyvett, 1967).

There is a high incidence of peptic ulcer (about 25%) in patients with pulmonary emphysema. Although a majority of these patients are smokers, it is not possible to state that smoking is the cause of these ulcers (Lowell et al., 1956; Kroeker and Leon, 1962). Other factors, such as vagotonia, hypercapnia, hypoxia and genetic factors should be considered.

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V-B. MORBIDITY STATISTICS IN THE UNITED STATES

The prevalence of respiratory symptoms among cigarette smokers has been investigated in several states. Some of the surveys consider the additional role of industrial hazards and of air pollution in the causation of symptoms which suggest the presence of chronic pulmonary disease.

1. New Hampshire. In 1961, a study of prevalence of respiratory disease among 1,261 residents of Berlin, New Hampshire, was carried out (Ferris and Anderson, 1965; Anderson and Ferris, 1962; Anderson et al., 1963). It was observed that in cigarette smokers, chronic respiratory disease was substantially more prevalent than in nonsmokers of similar age and sex. A repeat study of the group in 1967 showed a lower prevalence of such disease than in 1961. The levels of air pollution were less in the second study than in the first, and it was suggested that this fall accounted for the decrease in prevalence of the disease and improvement in lung function (Ferris et al., 1971). Eckardt (1972) and Ferris et al., (1973) have exchanged correspondence with each other on the results that pulmonary function is better in males smoking 45 cigarettes /day than in those who smoke 1 to 4 cigarettes.

The above studies emphasize the shortcomings of morbidity statistics which attempt to correlate cigarette smoking with incidence of respiratory disease. If cigarette smoking is indeed an important cause of lung disease, continued smoking from 1961 to 1967 would have increased its incidence, but this did not occur. The effects of the reduction in air pollution appear to show that atmospheric impurity is a more important

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cause of lung disease than cigarette smoking. A group of 147 men drawn from workers in a pulp mill was compared with one of 124 men from a paper mill. Although the pulp mill workers were exposed to chlorine and sulfur dioxide, there was no significant difference between the two groups in regard to respiratory symptoms and ventilatory function. The working population of both mills together showed a lower prevalence of respiratory disease than did the male population of Berlin, N. H., suggesting that the working population may not be representative of the general population (Ferris et al., 1967).

2. Massachusetts. A sample of the population of Framingham has been examined periodically for symptoms of lung disease, chest x-ray and ventilatory function (Revotskie et al., 1962). The results do not show any correlation between smoking and incidence of symptoms or reduction in ventilatory function. The following groups were found to show a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than nonsmokers: 5,000 registrants for military service (Andosca, 1966); 100 college seniors and (Peters and Ferris, 1967); 2,027 university graduates (Peters and Ferris, 1967). In the second group there was no statistically significant difference in vital capacity and forced expiratory volume between smokers and nonsmokers. In the third group, the higher incidence of respiratory symptoms in addition was accompanied by traumatic and genitourinary problems. The authors do not attribute the high incidence of trauma and genitourinary problems among smokers to cigarette smoking, yet they

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ascribe the respiratory symptoms to it.

Two groups of workers were surveyed in Massachusetts.

Ferris et al. (1968) examined movie projectionists and noted no difference in ventilatory function between smokers and nonsmokers.

3. Connecticut. A group of 424 persons residing in Southern Connecticut were questioned for incidence of respiratory symptoms (Kelsey et al., 1968). Smokers were affected more frequently than nonsmokers. However, a statistically significant association was observed between severity of symptoms and migration from urban areas. The chronic bronchitics with severe symptoms were most likely to have left urban areas afflicted with air pollution in recent years.

A retrospective study was made of medical absenteeism among 226 male employees of a manufacturing company from 1956 through 1964 (Holcomb and Meigs, 1972). There was a significant association of high absenteeism with cigarette smoking and a more significant association of low absenteeism with cigar or pipe smoking. The authors proposed a hypothesis that adoption of the habit of cigar or pipe smoking at middle age occurred among men with constitutional and absentee behavioral characteristics tending to distinguish them from men with a lifelong cigarette smoking habit. The authors suggested caution in drawing causal conclusions regarding these associations because of considerable overlapping of individual absentee rates among groups divided by smoking habits.

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4. New York. The following groups solicited by a questionnaire show a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than among nonsmokers: 2,031 insurance policy holders (Short et al., 1939); 1,250 telephone men over 40 years of age (Holland and Stone, 1965; Comstock et al., 1970); and 12,604 postal and transit workers (Densen et al., 1967). In the last-mentioned study, there was a decrease of forced expiratory volume with age, particularly among white men more than among nonwhite men (Densen et al., 1964, 1967). A similar racial difference was encountered in a survey of 6,314 workers for pulmonary emphysema (Robins et al., 1969).

Two surveys were made of industrial workers. A group of 55 grain handlers in Western New York State (Kleinfeld et al., 1968). There was ^{no} significant difference in vital capacity between smokers and nonsmokers up to 19 years of age but a significant difference in vital capacity and forced expiratory volume between these two types of subject when 20 years old or more. A group of 1,744 individuals exposed to oil mist showed a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms for smokers than for nonsmokers (Ely et al., 1970).

5. Pennsylvania. Boucot et al. (1962) reported that among 6,137 males over 45 years of age there was a higher incidence of chronic cough among smokers than among nonsmokers. A similarity in cough pattern appeared in cigarette, cigar and pipe smokers,

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suggesting that tobacco smoke in general rather than cigarette smoke alone causes cough.

The other reports from Pennsylvania concern coal miners. In a group of 801 anthracite coal miners, smoking, aging and duration of exposure to coal dust increased the prevalence of pneumoconiosis (Tokuhata et al., 1970). Autopsies performed on a group of 144 Appalachian underground coal workers indicated no significant effect of smoking on lung structure in anthracite miners (Naeye et al., 1971). Among bituminous coal miners, the smokers had a greater degree of cor pulmonale and more emphysema and bronchiolar goblet cells. The authors suggested that the effect of smoking among anthracite miners may be obscured by the severe lesions primarily related to the pneumoconiosis. Another possibility is that above-ground forms of air pollution may partially obscure the influence of smoking. In response to a communication from Kibelstis (1972), the authors emphasized that it is not yet possible to quantitate the individual contributions to emphysema of mine dust, smoking, other air pollutants, infection and other factors of individual susceptibility.

6. West Virginia. The data collected from 258 bituminous miners show a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than among nonsmokers (Hyatt et al., 1964). In another survey of 5,540 persons living in five communities, there was a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than among nonsmokers (Higgins et al., 1968). The mean of forced expiratory volume of smokers and that of nonsmokers under 50 years of age were not different but these were lower for smokers and nonsmokers

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over 50 years of age.

That chronic obstructive disease can still occur among miners who are nonsmokers indicates the importance of exposure to coal dust as a causative factor (Rasmussen, 1971; Rasmussen and Nelson, 1971). The reduction in the ventilatory function of coal miners who are smokers is particularly marked after the end of the working period (Lapp et al., 1972). The prevalence of respiratory symptoms in a mining community is the same both for miners and for nonminers, so that the contamination of the air influences the incidence of lung disease (Enterline and Lainhart, 1967).

7. Maryland. Stebbings (1971 a, b, c, d) has reported the results of examination of 736 white males, 35 to 64 years old, who were nonsmokers. Although the investigation did not include smokers, several problems relating to statistics became apparent. The prevalence of respiratory symptoms or illness as derived from the standard questionnaire does not discriminate adequately between upper respiratory allergic conditions, lower respiratory symptoms and cardiovascular symptoms. The pulmonary function values included sizable instrument and interviewer data that were statistically significant. Social class can influence respiratory symptoms and pulmonary function. Furthermore, the effect of duration of urban residence on pulmonary function vary. Most of the shortcomings uncovered by Stebbings were overlooked in prevalence studies reported by the United States Public Health Service.

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8. Southern States. The incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers is higher than among nonsmokers in the following groups: 1,848 military cadets in Georgia (Finklea et al., 1971), and 408 cotton textile workers in North Carolina (Merchant et al., 1972) and in Georgia (Bouhuys et al., 1969). In Tennessee, the extent of air pollution has been shown to influence the incidence of respiratory symptoms (Zeidberg et al., 1964).

9. Michigan. In 1958 a group of 1,317 men, ranging in age from 40 to 65 years, with industrial exposure in the Detroit area, were examined (Brinkman and Coates, 1962). Cigarette smoking was identified as the most important factor in the etiology of chronic bronchitis diagnosed by the occurrence of expectoration daily for at least six months. After a six-year period, the subjects diagnosed as chronic bronchitics did not show any adverse effect on health, working ability or ventilation even though they continued smoking (Brinkman and Block, 1966, 1972).

Additional surveys have appeared relating to the following: 6,500 residents of Tecumseh (Payne and Kjelsberg, 1964; Higgins and Kjelsberg, 1967); 1,584 Detroit postal employees 40 years of age or older (Coates et al., 1965); and 1,058 iron foundry workers (Clarke, 1972). A higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than among nonsmokers was reported.

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10. Minnesota. In a group of 450 railroad employees, there was a correlation between intensity of smoking and the expiratory volumes and incidence of symptoms (Blackburn et al., 1965). In subjects who stopped smoking, the ventilatory function was elevated to "supernormal" level. The authors have interpreted this as strengthening the concept that smokers differ from nonsmokers in characteristics other than the smoking habit.

11. Midwestern states. The following surveys have revealed a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than among nonsmokers: 1,887 white males 43 to 58 years old employed in an industrial plant in Illinois (Sharp et al., 1965); 136 white-collar workers 35 to 64 years of age in Ohio (Krumholz and Hedrick, 1973); 557 high school students in Oklahoma (Addington et al., 1970).

12. Colorado. In a group of 172 adult men and women over 40 years of age, ventilatory function in male nonsmokers was significantly better than in smokers, but there was no significant difference between female nonsmokers and smokers (Bower, 1961). In a prevalence study of 633 residents of Glenwood Springs, a strong association was found to exist between incidence of chronic bronchitis and cigarette smoking (Mueller et al., 1971 a, b). The authors reviewed interstudy variations in the prevalence of respiratory disease in various geographic areas and concluded that there are other factors which determine the incidence of chronic

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obstructive pulmonary disease. In a group of 1,500 uranium miners, cigarette smoking did not influence the occurrence of shortness of breath or persistent coughing (Archer et al., 1964). The hazards of radiation exposure are more severe than other factors, such as aging, altitude and cigarette smoking.

12. California. The following surveys indicate a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than among nonsmokers: 7,070 industrial workers in Los Angeles County (Balchum et al., 1962); 3,311 longshoremen in San Francisco bay area (Goldsmith et al., 1962); ^{and} 630 telephone workers in San Francisco and Los Angeles (Deane et al., 1965). In a group of 38 beryllium workers, ventilatory function was measured at 6-month intervals for 18 to 24 months. The day-to-day variation in values was greater for smokers than for nonsmokers (Dawson, 1966).

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V-C. MORBIDITY STATISTICS IN GREAT BRITAIN

Chronic bronchitis is the more common form of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in Great Britain. Fletcher (1963) and Reid et al. (1964) noted that there was little difference in the prevalence of productive cough between the United States (Berlin, New Hampshire) and all ^{surveyed} areas of Great Britain. However, the symptoms of more advanced bronchitis with infection and dyspnea were more prevalent in British areas than in the United States. Holland et al. (1965) arrived at a similar conclusion in comparing the prevalence of symptoms of advanced bronchitis in London and three American cities: Westchester (New York), Baltimore and Washington. The prevalence rates for respiratory symptoms in British male migrants are no greater than for those in native-born Americans, so that the environment is more important than country of birth (Reid et al., 1966). An Anglo-Danish comparison has revealed a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms in England than in Denmark (Olsen and Gilson, 1960).

1. Influence of air pollution. Most of the early comparisons of prevalence rates of respiratory symptoms in Great Britain involved only a single community: 1,300 subjects in London (Oswald et al., 1953); 6,245 clerical workers also in London (Oswald et al., 1955); 631 residents of an agricultural community near Penarth (Higgins et al., 1956; Higgins, 1957); 147 young soldiers at Aldershot (Liebeschuetz, 1959); 2,081 men

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over 60 years of age in Birmingham (Edwards et al., 1959), and 92 general practitioners (College of General Practitioners, 1961). These surveys showed that there is a higher incidence of respiratory symptoms among smokers than nonsmokers.

Subsequent observations have emphasized the importance of air pollution in influencing the prevalence of respiratory symptoms. Higgins and Cochrane (1958) and Higgins (1959) noted a difference in incidence between a community (Annandale) in Scotland and the Vale of Glamorgan in Wales, i. e., between an urban and a rural community. The extent of influence of cigarette smoking was determined by the amount of air pollution.

The urban factor in chronic bronchitis has been studied by Holland and Reid (1965), who surveyed 293 drivers and vehicle maintenance men in central London and 477 men in three rural areas in Southern England. Although personal smoking habits were shown to be closely related to the frequency of respiratory disturbance, the local levels of air pollution appeared to be the most likely cause of the difference in morbidity between urban and rural areas. A study of 2,342 families revealed a relationship between the prevalence of cough and environmental factors. In the fathers who were exposed to the hazards both of home and of occupation, smoking and social class influenced the prevalence of cough. It was not possible to specify the role of smoking alone in incidence of coughing (Colley and Holland,

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1967). Other additional surveys illustrate the importance of air pollution and of social class in influencing the incidence of symptoms of chronic bronchitis; Evans et al. (1969) at Derbyshire; Rimington (1969) at Cheshire; Howard (1970) at Sheffield; and Milne and Williamson (1972 a, b) at Edinburgh. A postal survey of 9,975 men and women in the London area, made with a questionnaire similar to that used in American surveys, revealed a difference between rural and urban areas in the incidence of respiratory symptoms (Lambert and Reid, 1970).

2. Incidence in children and young adults. Approximately 10,000 children in secondary and grammar schools completed a questionnaire relating to their smoking habits (Holland and Elliot, 1968). . . . The frequency of respiratory symptoms was higher among students who smoked more than five cigarettes a day -- about 30 % coughing and 20 % expectoration -- as compared with 2 % and 5 % among those smoking less than one cigarette a day. Holland et al. (1969 a, b, c) have summarized the analysis of their results and concluded that environmental and personal factors are important in the onset of chronic respiratory disease. Colley and Reid (1970) surveyed 10,000 children from 6 to 10 years old and noted a pronounced social class gradient in the frequency of chronic cough. The occurrence of respiratory symptoms in children is influenced by the smoking habits of the families (Norman-Taylor and Dickinson, 1972).

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3. Industrial hazards. In 1957 the British Medical Research Council's Pneumoconiosis Research Unit carried out a survey in Staveley, an industrial town (Higgins et al., 1959). The prevalence of respiratory symptoms was higher and ventilatory function was lower in miners exminers and men exposed to chemical fumes than in men who had worked in nondusty jobs. After five and nine years, the follow-up study showed that the annual decline of forced expiratory volume was greater in smokers than in nonsmokers or ex-smokers (Higgins and Oldham, 1962; Higgins et al., 1968, 1969). It was concluded that smoking is a more important factor in the development of respiratory disability than occupation.

Other investigators surveying miners have not identified smoking as a more important factor than industrial hazards in the causation of respiratory symptoms (Ashford et al., 1961; Caplan et al., 1966; Ashford et al., 1970; Ryder et al., 1970; Walker et al., 1971; Lyons et al., 1972).

Among the following industrial workers, smoking contributes to the prevalence of respiratory symptoms: alkaline dust workers (Chivers, 1959), flax workers (Elwood et al., 1965), spinners (Molyneux and Tombleson, 1970), asbestos workers (Regan et al., 1971; Muldoon et al., 1972) and steel foundrymen (Lowe et al., 1970, 1972; McCallum, 1972). In the last-mentioned type of workmen, the influence of air pollution in the prevalence of respiratory symptoms has been suggested by Lowe et al. (1968).

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V. NON-OCCURRENCE OF CHRONIC PULMONARY DISEASE IN SMOKERS

C. MORBIDITY STATISTICS IN GREAT BRITAIN

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V-D. MORBIDITY STATISTICS IN OTHER FOREIGN COUNTRIES

The prevalence of respiratory symptoms has been investigated in several countries. As in the United States and Great Britain, there are several causes of respiratory symptoms including cigarette smoking, air pollution and industrial hazards.

1. Canada. As in the United States, there is an increasing mortality from bronchitis and emphysema in Canada (Gauthier, 1970; Neri et al., 1970). The morbidity statistics are less extensive in Canada. Anderson and others (1965) surveyed 246 males and 311 females in Chilliwack, British Columbia. Chronic respiratory disease was found to affect 29.3% of men and 18% of women between 25 and 79 years of age. The authors concluded that cigarette smoking was the most important single factor associated with respiratory diseases. Smoking caused a higher prevalence of respiratory symptoms in the following groups: 200 men and women 70 to 89 years old (Aguzzi et al., 1966); 310 male physicians 25 to 74 years old (Lefcoe and Wonnacott, 1970); 1,015 male employees in asbestos mines and mills (McDonald et al., 1972); and 1,138 Eskimos (Beaudry, 1968). The respective roles of air pollution, respiratory infections and social status have not been elucidated in these reports.

2. Sweden. The twin registry in Sweden has provided an unusual opportunity to investigate the morbidity among monozygotic and dizygotic pairs. In a group of 71 monozygotic twins with discordant smoking habits, there were more complaints of coughing and bronchitis

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from the twins who smoke or who smoke most (Cederlof et al., 1965; Lundman, 1966). In a survey of 9,168 individuals entered in the registry, the prevalence of the respiratory symptoms was higher among male smokers in urban than in rural areas. A specific urban factor was interacting in some way with smoking (Cederlof, 1966). The hypermorbidity among smokers was found also among smokers in smoking-discordant monozygotic twin pairs (Cederlof et al., 1966, 1967). The American twin registry revealed a similar conclusion (Cederlof et al., 1969; International Symposium, 1971).

The following surveys indicate a higher incidence of respiratory illness in smokers than in nonsmokers: 339 men 50 years old (Wilhelmsen and Tibblin, 1966; Wilhelmsen et al., 1969), 240 iron mine workers (Jørgensen and Svensson, 1970), and 22,250 urban and rural residents (Irnell and Kiviloog, 1968). In the last two reports, the extent of air pollution influenced the morbidity from cigarette smoking.

3. Finland. In a rural population and among area pulp mill workers, there is a difference in prevalence of respiratory symptoms both in smokers and in nonsmokers. The higher incidence in the industrial area may relate either to the pollution in the air or to the fact that it is in the Arctic area (Huhti, 1965, 1966; Huhti et al., 1970). In these surveys as well as in those conducted by Järvinen et al. (1966) and Ruikka et al. (1966), smoking was found to increase the incidence of respiratory illness.

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4. France. The higher prevalence of chronic bronchitis among smokers as compared with nonsmokers has been reported by Fréour et al. (1966), Kourilsky et al. (1966), Coudray et al. (1969), Brille (1969, 1970), Brille et al., 1970, Fournier and Zivy (1970), Golli (1970), Jancik (1970), and Vigy (1970). All of these reports confirm the observations previously made in the United States and Great Britain.

5. Germany. More than 30,000 questionnaires from 10 clinics of different towns in West Germany were analyzed (Ulmer and Reif, 1966). The nature of occupation influences the incidence of obstructive emphysema. Specific occupational types have been surveyed by others: asbestos workers (Hany et al., 1967), coal miners (Ulmer et al., 1968; Ulmer and Reichel, 1970; Ulmer, 1970) and chemical factory workers (Possner, 1970). The role of industrial exposure and cigarette smoking in the pathogenesis of pulmonary emphysema in Germany has been discussed by Wendel (1966).

6. Other Western European countries. In the Netherlands, Biersteker (1968, 1969) and Biersteker et al. (1969) reported an association between smoking and symptoms of chronic bronchitis among 1,000 male municipal employees. In Denmark, a group of 802 males and females over 50 years of age showed a lower ventilatory function in smokers than in nonsmokers (Hagerup and Larsen, 1971). In Copenhagen, a group of 156 welders was compared with a group of 152 other workers from the same plant (Fogh et al., 1969). The

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VI: BRONCHOPULMONARY FUNCTION IN SMOKERS AND NONSMOKERS

There are several investigations comparing measurements of bronchopulmonary function in smokers and nonsmokers. The results are discussed in this section, as distinct from those contrasting patients having pulmonary emphysema or chronic bronchitis with healthy controls (see Sections II and III). The separation is not a common practice because of the widespread belief that in smokers there is an abnormal bronchopulmonary condition representing the early stages of chronic bronchitis or pulmonary emphysema. There is no clinical or experimental support for this assumption.

With regard to the literature on this topic, it is important to point out that in the follow-up of smokers who show subnormal bronchopulmonary functioning there is no report of a subject who has developed chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema. Most of the available articles deal with a comparison of smokers and nonsmokers executed once without a follow-up. The bibliographic list containing articles which serve as a background to this section is as follows:

No. 13. Pulmonary functional test.

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VI-A. VENTILATORY FUNCTION

Several reports have appeared describing the effects of cigarette smoking on lung function. The conclusions are varied and depend on the manner of comparing smokers with nonsmokers. This discussion considers the importance of age, sex, height, environment and country of origin in determining the influence of cigarette smoking on pulmonary ventilation.

1. Age, sex, height and environment. A group of 302 subjects in Australia was investigated by Read and Selby (1961). The results were expressed as regression coefficients for mean expiratory flow based on age and height. Smokers without symptoms did not differ significantly from nonsmokers. However, smokers who complained of coughing with or without expectoration had lower ventilatory function than nonsmokers. The authors concluded that smoking alone does not reduce ventilatory function and suggested that a combination of genetic and environmental factors would produce symptoms and signs of decreased ventilatory function.

Cotes et al. (1966) have calculated the ventilatory capacities standardized to the average age, height and weight. They found the regression coefficient calculated separately for nonsmokers, light-to-moderate smokers and heavy smokers to be practically the same. This manner of testing the significance of the difference between smokers and nonsmokers has been overlooked by others who have correlated ventilatory capacities with age only.

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Boren et al. (1966) reported the measurements of 266 subjects in the United States, specifying their age, height and smoking habits. They noted that vital capacity, inspiratory capacity and forced expiratory rate were slightly smaller and the functional residual capacity and residual volume were slightly lower in smokers than they were in nonsmokers. The differences were explained by the difference in mean age of nonsmoking subjects, which was lower than that of any of those who smoked.

In Finland, 420 men and 608 women, ranging in age from 40 to 64 years, were examined by Huhti (1967). On the basis of regression coefficients of age and height, there was no difference in forced vital capacity, one-second forced expiratory volume and peak expiratory flow between smokers and nonsmokers. A group of 44 young male recruits in Roumania was investigated by Stanescu et al. (1968). Lung volumes and ventilatory capacities of smokers did not differ from those of nonsmokers.

2. Age and environment. Flick and Paton (1959) reported the first comparison of ventilatory tests in a group of 222 male patients at a Veterans Hospital in the United States. The maximal expiratory flow was statistically different only between 60 and 70 years of age: the mean value for 20 nonsmokers was 378 l/min and that for 61 smokers was 258 l/min. Subjects from 20 to 50 years did not show a significant difference in their maximal expiratory flow.

Smoking in the older age group (40 to 60 years) has been shown by other investigators to reduce ventilatory function: Franklin

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and Lowell (1961) in 376 male employees in Massachusetts; Catlett and Kidera (1969) in 257 male flight officers. Larson (1963) noted a difference in ventilatory function between smokers and nonsmokers, starting with the 30-year-old group in California. However, the difference cannot be attributed to smoking alone. The role of air pollution is difficult to assess in these reports, but one additional report has defined its influence. Anderson and Ferris (1965) compared the results of pulmonary function tests in a group in New Hampshire and another group in Canada. After controlling variations in age, sex and smoking habits, there were still significant differences in values of forced expiratory volume and peak expiratory flow rate. These differences could be explained by ethnic factors and atmospheric pollution.

3. Absence of age grouping. A survey of 262 American physicians, ranging in age from 25 to 79 years, showed that smokers have lower ventilatory function than nonsmokers (McIlreath and Cohen, 1966). In another group of 410 volunteers in an American community, ranging in age from 20 to 103 years, there was a decrease in ventilatory function of smokers (Edelman et al., 1966). A similar conclusion was arrived at in the examination of the following: 350 males in Pennsylvania 50 years or over (Weiss et al., 1963), 20 medical students or doctors in Massachusetts 18 to 45 years (Zwi et al., 1964), 140 males and females in Connecticut 67 to 95 years (Kiss, 1966), 150 males in India 15 to 50 years of age (Mohanty and Gupta, 1968), 298 females in Canada 25 to 59 years of age (Woolf and Suero, 1971), and 365 students in Connecticut

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occurrence of respiratory symptoms in the welders and in the controls was associated with the cigarette smoking.

In Norway, Haenszel and Hougen (1972) concluded that the prevalence of respiratory symptoms was related to urban residence and to the amount of cigarettes consumed. In Spain, Bouhuys et al. (1969 a, b) noted that in a group of 216 hemp workers the associated disabling respiratory disease is attributable not to smoking habits but to prolonged exposure to hemp dust. In Switzerland, prospective studies of 3,479 doctors (Strobel and Gisell, 1965) and 1,885 residents of Basle (Mannhart, 1962) revealed a higher incidence of chronic lung disease among smokers than among nonsmokers.

7. Eastern Europe. In Poland, most surveys were conducted among workers with the following industrial connections: port and shipyard (Dobrzyński et al., 1970a), grain elevator (Dobrzyński et al., 1970b), wool industry (Brysiewicz et al., 1970), textile (Cierniak et al., 1970; Szymczykiewicz et al., 1970), plaster works (Owsinski et al., 1971) and steel works (Council of Scientific Research, 1972). The workers who smoked cigarettes showed a higher rate of incidence of respiratory symptoms than nonsmokers. There are surveys which include residents of Bialystok (Pręgowski et al., 1970), Warsaw and (Kucewicz, 1969 a, b), Lublin (Durda and Szafranski, 1971),/ Zarze (Pudelski et al., 1971).

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In Czechoslovakia, epidemiological studies have been conducted as follows: 473 men 60 to 64 years old in Prague (Stanek et al., 1966); 441 men 50 to 65 years old in Prague (Boudik et al., 1970); 112 miners in Karvina (Pochmon et al., 1968); 3,466 hospital patients in Katowicach (Gasinska and Gburek, 1970); 2,376 persons in Brno (Vyskocil, 1968; Jancik and Jancik-Mak, 1972); and 95 men residing in Klin (Feuereisl et al., 1972). In the last-mentioned study, 5 men out of 51 who smoked 292,000 to 584,000 cigarettes during their lifetime showed no objective signs of chronic bronchitis.

The surveys in the U. S. S. R. (Petrova, 1956; Danovich et al., 1969; Futora. nsky et al., 1971), Roumania (Jelea et al., 1964; Stanescu et al., 1967), and Yugoslavia (Kalācić, 1970; Valic and Zuskin, 1972) have revealed an association between smoking and symptoms of chronic lung disease.

8. Middle East and Africa. Workers in South African gold mines have been examined by several investigators. Chatgidakis (1960) noted at autopsy that smokers with silicosis had lungs characterized by enlarged bronchial mucus glands. The enlargement was also seen in nonsmokers. In a survey of 827 males, chronic bronchitis was more common in miners than in nonminers in the same smoking category (Zwi et al., 1967; Sluis-Cremer et al., 1967 a, b; Sluis-Cremer and Sichel, 1968). The severity of emphysema in gold miners detected at autopsy was not related to smoking habits (Prinsloo and Laubscher, 1970).

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In Egypt, a group of 223 cement workers showed a significant correlation between cement exposure and wheezing, dyspnea and physical signs of chronic bronchitis. Cigarette smoking was related only to cough and expectoration (El-Sewefy and Awad, 1971). Among 89 bricklayers and 245 workers in the rolling mills, respiratory symptoms were more frequently encountered among smokers than among nonsmokers (El-Sewefy, 1970). In Israel, among 257 cotton mill workers and 64 orchestra players, smoking was a significant factor which increased the prevalence of respiratory symptoms (Chwat and Mordish, 1971). Results of a survey of 175 Indian wool workers are similar (Mathur and Misra, 1972).

9. Asian-Pacific countries. In Australia, the following types of industrial workers have been examined: coalminers (Outhred and Flynn, 1960; McKenzie et al., 1969); felt manufacturers (Gandevia and Milne, 1965), ^{and} cotton workers (Barnes and Simpson, 1968). Residents in New South Wales (Hong et al., 1967; Gandeva, 1969) and in Sydney (Lake, 1969) have also been surveyed. An association between cigarette smoking and prevalence of chronic lung disease is indicated.

The results of surveys conducted in Japan (Takenouchi, 1968; Nishimoto et al., 1970; Tsumetoshi et al., 1971), in Singapore (Da Costa, 1972), in New Zealand (De Hamel et al., 1972) and in New Guinea (Woolcock et al., 1970) have revealed a relationship between smoking and prevalence of respiratory symptoms.

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10. South America and Caribbean. The epidemiological studies, reported from Mexico (Paras Chavero et al., 1970/ Celis 1971; 1968), et al., Cuba (Rodriguez Rivera et al., 1969), Chile (Oyanguren et al., 1972) and Jamaica (Walshe and Hayes, 1967) reveal an association between smoking and prevalence of respiratory symptoms.

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15 to 18 years of age (Seely et al., 1971). However, the age and height of smokers and nonsmokers were not matched, so that it is not possible to specify the age when smoking influences ventilatory function.

The technique of pairing a smoker with a nonsmoker of the same age and sex has been used by two groups of investigators. Wilson et al. (1960) reported 14 pairs in Texas all over 40 years old and noted a decrease in timed expiratory volume, total lung capacity and maximal breathing capacity. Carey et al. (1967) reported 7 pairs in Ireland ranging from 19 to 60 years of age. Ventilatory capacity measured daily was less in smokers than in nonsmokers. The size of the group does not permit the conclusion as to the age when smoking starts to influence ventilatory capacity.

4. Abstinence from smoking. In some smokers with abnormal ventilatory function, cessation of smoking caused an improvement (Peters and Miller, 1960; Wynder et al., 1967; Peterson et al., 1968; Schuman, 1971). Administration of bronchodilator drugs has also reduced the airway obstruction in smokers (Petty et al., 1970). The abnormalities in ventilatory function associated with smoking are reversible.

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VI-B. AIRWAY RESISTANCE

That cigarette smoking reduces forced expiratory volume in certain individuals described in the preceding section indicates a bronchospastic component. The other techniques used to investigate airway resistance are discussed in this section.

1. Body plethysmograph technique. The measurement of airway resistance or airway conductance by body plethysmograph technique is more sensitive than others applicable to man. All reports uniformly show an increase in resistance or a decrease in conductance in smokers as compared with nonsmokers: Pelzer and Thomson (1966) reporting from England on 82 subjects 17 to 82 years of age; Sewcik (1967) from Czechoslovakia on 150 men 18 to 68 years of age; Guyatt and Alpers (1968) and Guyatt et al. (1970) from England on 752 men 38 to 67 years old; Allen and Sabin (1971) from Texas on 32 males and females 16 to 82 years old; Diamond et al. (1971) from Kentucky on 30 subjects 19 to 44 years old; Huttemann et al. (1971, 1972) from Germany on 20 subjects 20 to 40 years old. The extent of increase in resistance varies with the age of the individual and the country of origin. The bronchoconstriction is readily reversed by abstinence from smoking for a few days (Cohen, 1966; Wilhelmsen, 1967; McFadden and Linden, 1972) or by the inhalation of a bronchodilator drug (Curtis et al., 1966; Crompton, 1968; Woolcock et al., 1969; Ruff et al., 1972).

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2. Acute effects of cigarette smoking in man detected by various techniques. Immediately after inhalation of cigarette smoke, there is an increase in airway resistance in normal subjects, both smokers and nonsmokers (Attinger et al., 1958; Sterling, 1967; Chiang and Wang, 1970; Reintjes et al., 1972; Da Silva and Hamosh, 1973). The bronchoconstriction was reduced by prior administration of atropine, indicating that the vagus nerve participates in the response (Sterling, 1967). Filtration of the smoke to remove either the particulate or the vapor phase had a similar effect in reducing the bronchoconstrictor response, showing that both phases contribute to this response (Clarke et al., 1970). Inhalation of isoproterenol prevented the response, which reflects its reversibility (Nadel and Comroe, 1961).

The acute bronchoconstriction has been reported following inhalation of cigarette smoke in patients with chronic lung disease: Simonsson (1962, 1965) reporting from Sweden; Cellereno and Billia (1962) from Italy; McDermott and Collins (1965) from Great Britain; Johannsen (1966) from Poland; James (1970) from Ohio; and Votchal et al. (1970) from the Soviet Union. These effects are transient in nature and do not necessarily contribute to the abnormal ventilatory function.

3. Acute and chronic effects of inhalation of cigarette smoke in animals. The author of this review and his collaborators reported the effects of inhalation of cigarette smoke in several animal species:

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dog (Aviado and Palecek, 1967; Klide and Aviado, 1968; Cho et al., 1968; Carrillo and Aviado, 1970); cat (Palecek and Aviado, 1967); rabbit (Palecek et al., 1967); and rat (Aviado and Carrillo, 1969; Shore and Aviado, 1969; Aviado et al., 1970). The bronchoconstriction is brought about by the following mechanisms: (a) stimulation of cholinergic receptors in the airways; (b) stimulation of sensory receptors in the lungs, which triggers reflex spasm and (c) release of histamine, which produces bronchospasm (Aviado and Samanek, 1965; Samanek and Aviado, 1965; Samanek et al., 1965). Simultaneously, bronchodilatation is also produced by stimulation of adrenergic mechanisms arising from nicotine contained in the cigarette smoke and by reflex mechanism.

Following chronic exposure to cigarette smoke, there is an increase in airway resistance in rats (Ito and Aviado, 1968; Aviado, 1972) and mice (Aviado, 1972). This effect is reversed by inhalation of sympathomimetic drugs. The results in animals serve to explain the reversibility of bronchoconstriction as seen in man and described in the above paragraphs.

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VI. BRONCHOPULMONARY FUNCTION IN SMOKERS AND NONSMOKERS

B. AIRWAY RESISTANCE

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VI-C. BRONCHIAL CLEARANCE

Cigarette smoking retards the clearance mechanism in certain experimental conditions. The effects of cigarette smoking on ciliary motility and mucus secretion are part of the defense mechanisms in the lung against inhalants in general and air pollutants in particular. (Gross, 1967; Gross and Hatch, 1963; Kilburn, 1967, 1968).

1. Mucociliary transport in man. The first observations relating to the effect of cigarette smoking on the respiratory epithelium were made in vitro (Rakieten et al., 1912). Strips of the nasal mucosa were examined under the microscope. The solution through which cigarette smoke was passed did not influence ciliary activity for a 5-to 10-min period. Longer exposure caused cessation of ciliary activity. These results were difficult to relate to the usual manner of smoking. Ballenger (1960) introduced another in vitro technique, using fresh mucosa scraped under general anesthesia from the trachea of children. The ciliotoxicity from the smoked solution is also difficult to relate to the usual form of smoking.

The introduction of radioactive particles for measurement of bronchial clearance has made it possible to investigate the influence of cigarette smoking in man. The results so far have not been consistent. Albert et al. (1969a) used monodisperse ferric oxide aerosols (0.8 to 7.9 μ): bronchial clearance was impaired in 8 out of 14 cigarette smokers. Pavia et al. (1970, 1971) and Thomson and Pavia (1973) used radioactive polystyrene particles 5 μ in diameter. There was no demonstrable difference in mucociliary transport between smokers

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and nonsmokers. Lourenço et al. (1971) used particles 2 μ in size and noted that the clearance was delayed in smokers as compared with nonsmokers. Camner and Philipson (1971) and Camner et al. (1971, 1973) used 6 to 7 μ particles and observed a faster clearance immediately following smoking. However, habitual smokers showed an increase in clearance three weeks after abstaining. There appear to be two kinds of effects produced by cigarette smoking, an acute type which accelerates and a chronic type which decelerates clearance. Mucociliary transport in the nasal cavity is either retarded by smoking (Evert, 1965) or not influenced by it (Quinlan et al., 1969).

In 10 monozygotic pairs of twins that were discordant with regard to cigarette smoking, half of the smoking pairs had a markedly slower clearance than the nonsmokers, whereas the other half had a similar clearance (Camner and Philipson, 1972; Camner et al., 1972). It has not been possible to obtain a consistent effect from cigarette smoking even by comparing a smoker with a nonsmoker who is constitutionally similar.

2. Mucociliary transport in the rabbit. The results in animals are also variable. There was no effect from two hours' exposure to cigarette smoke on ciliary activity in vivo in the rabbit (Dalhamn, 1964) and on bronchial clearance of radioactive particles in the same species (LaBelle et al., 1966). A depression has been reported by others, using different techniques for measuring ciliary activity (Krueger and Smith, 1958) and clearance (Holma, 1969).

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The functional activity of the ciliated epithelium can be influenced by oxygen tension (Dalhamn and Rosengren, 1968), particulate matter (Falke et al., 1959), and acetylcholine (Kordek et al., 1952).

Cigarette smoke can exert its influence through any one or more of these mechanisms and this may account for the varied results reported in the rabbit. Kensler and Battista (1963), by using smoke filters, concluded that the ciliotoxic activity is in the gaseous phase. The following constituents of smoke depress ciliary activity in the rabbit: carboxylic acid and aldehydes (Wynder et al., 1965), phenol (Dalhamn, 1966) and acrolein (Scharbort, 1967).

3. Mucociliary transport in the cat. The observations in the cat have consistently shown a depression of bronchial clearance by exposure to cigarette smoke (Dalhamn, 1964, 1966; Carson et al., 1966; Kaminski et al., 1968). The tar content of the cigarette smoke influenced its ciliotoxicity (Nakashima, 1938; Dalhamn and Rylander, 1964, 1965, 1967, 1968). This effect was not simulated by nicotine but could be prevented by oxolamine citrate (Dalhamn, 1968, 1969). The role of the volatile constituents in cigarette smoke has been debated (Kensler and Battista, 1966; Dalhamn and Rylander, 1967, 1970; Kensler, 1967). Some chemical constituents of cigarette smoke have been shown to interact in their effect on mucociliary transport, which might explain the varied action reported for cigarette smoke (Weissbecker et al., 1971).

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4. Mucociliary transport in other animal species. The following animal species have been used in investigation of the influence of cigarette smoke: rat (Dalhamn and Rhodin, 1956; Dalhamn, 1959; Ferin et al., 1966; Guillermin et al., 1961); guinea pig (Hilding and Filipi, 1966); cow (Hill, 1928; Mendenhall and Shreeve, 1937; Hilding, 1956 a, b); monkey (Kensler and Battista, 1966); chicken (Battista and Kensler, 1970 a, b); donkey (Albert et al., 1969 b, 1973; Frances et al., 1970); and invertebrates (Boche and Quilligan, 1959; Wynder et al., 1963, 1965; Walker and Kiefer, 1966; Dalhamn, 1967; Weiss, 1968; Krah1 and Bulmash, 1969; Kennedy and Elliott, 1970). Ciliary activity consistently shows a depression by cigarette smoke but bronchial clearance is influenced in a variable manner, the latter by ciliary activity and mucus formation, as discussed in Section III.

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VII. CARDIOPULMONARY FUNCTION IN SMOKERS AND NONSMOKERS

This section is a continuation of Section VI on the differences between smokers and nonsmokers. Measurements of cardiopulmonary function include ventilation-perfusion relationship, pulmonary circulation, cardiac function, pulmonary function, surfactant and other constituents of the lung. It is important to point out that animal experiments have served to clarify the mode of action by which the constituents of cigarette smoke influence the heart and lungs. The following bibliographic lists contain articles on general aspects of the topic under consideration.

- No. 14. Constituents of cigarette smoke.
- No. 15. Cardiopulmonary effects of cigarette smoke.

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VII-A. VENTILATION-PERFUSION RELATIONSHIPS

Measurement of pulmonary diffusion capacity shows a reduction in smokers compared with nonsmokers: Martt (1962) reporting from Missouri; Krumholz et al. (1964, 1965) from Indiana; Rankin et al. (1965) from Wisconsin; and Van Ganse et al. (1972) from the Netherlands. Anderson and Shephard (1969) reported from Canada that among 43 healthy adult men, by serial multiple regression analysis, pulmonary diffusion capacity correlated with age and weight. By using the predicted equation for diffusion coefficient, smoking habits had no substantial effect on diffusion capacity. Bates (1955) and McGrath and Thomson (1959) arrived at a similar conclusion with a limited number of subjects. It has also been suggested that the presence of carboxyhemoglobin in blood of smokers would account for the lower value for diffusion capacity.

Cigarette smokers show some inadequacy of gas mixing in the lung as compared with nonsmokers (Ross et al., 1967; Stănescu et al., 1968). There is also an alteration in the ventilation-perfusion ratio in smokers (Williams and Anderson, 1968 a, b; Anderson and Williams, 1969). The change has not been confirmed by others and the participation of pulmonary blood vessels in the phenomenon has not been proven.

Inhaling cigarette smoke by the use of a smoking device that brought more smoke into the lungs with each breath than would be the case in ordinary smoking did not significantly change blood gas exchange in normal subjects or patients with a moderate degree of emphysema (Motley and Kuzman, 1958). However, patients in California with severe emphysema showed decreases in arterial oxygen tension and saturation.

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A similar hypoxemia was observed to arise from smoking by patients with chronic lung disease in Ireland (Chapman, 1965) by patients with chronic bronchitis in England (Penman and Howard, 1966), and by patients with chronic bronchitis in Massachusetts (Strieder and Kazemi, 1967; Strieder et al., 1968).

Hypoxemia is characteristic of patients in whom it does not necessarily relate to smoking but to pathological lesions in the lung (Pain et al., 1967; Weiss and Dulfano, 1968; Poppius, 1969).

Postoperative complications are reported to be higher among nonsmokers than smokers in Great Britain (Morton, 1944; Piper, 1958; Wightman, 1968). Smokers from Sweden do not show a higher incidence of pulmonary postoperative complications (Wiklander and Norlin, 1957). It has been suggested that postoperative hypoxemia is related to the appearance of pulmonary complications among smokers in Australia (Morton, 1969).

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VII. CARDIOPULMONARY FUNCTION IN SMOKERS AND NONSMOKERS

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VII-B. PULMONARY CIRCULATION

The pulmonary vascular lesions in pulmonary emphysema have been summarized by Liebow (1959). The lesions in the small pulmonary arteries are severe enough to cause elevation of pulmonary arterial blood pressure (Hicken *et al.*, 1965). Electron microscopy has revealed damage to the endothelium, filling of the capillary lumina with collagen, and recanalization of the damaged vessels (Martin and Boatman, 1965). Crenshaw (1968) has reviewed the hypothesis that pulmonary emphysema has a vascular etiology. However, none of the vascular lesions seen in human pulmonary emphysema have been reproduced in animals by cigarette smoking. The lungs of healthy cigarette smokers show fibrous thickening which is also seen in the aging lungs of nonsmokers (Auerbach *et al.*, 1968).

The acute effect of smoking one cigarette was studied in 67 Indian patients suffering from chronic bronchopulmonary disease (Viswanathan, 1965). There was a significant rise in mean and diastolic pressure in the pulmonary artery, but no significant change in systolic. The change in diastolic pressure was interpreted to mean vasoconstriction, although there was no measurement of cardiac output nor of left atrial pressure to allow estimation of pulmonary vascular resistance. The fall in pulmonary compliance seen among smokers does not relate to changes in the pulmonary circulation (Krumholz *et al.*, 1965).

There are some observations relating to pulmonary circulation in animals exposed to cigarette smoking. Larson *et al.* (1965) used nicotine intravenously and noted a biphasic rise and then fall in pulmonary vascular resistance in the dog. Samanek and Aviado (1966) noticed a rise in pulmonary arterial blood pressure following inhalation of cigarette smoke, but the

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response could not be repeated in the same animal for purposes of eliciting the mechanism of the rise. Nicotine injection was utilized and the following mechanisms were identified: vasoconstriction by release of catecholamine stores in the lung and the release of histamine.

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VII-C. CARDIAC FUNCTION

Since cigarette smoking has been identified as the most important cause of pulmonary emphysema by the United States Public Health Service, it has been implicated in cor pulmonale (Parade, 1969; Behnke et al., 1970). In a group of 150 patients with cor pulmonale in India, 28% were nonsmokers (Sanghvi and Kotia, 1963). In another group of 134 patients in India, 39% were nonsmokers (Khosla et al., 1969). In the United States the proportion of nonsmokers is lower among patients with cor pulmonale; Cullen et al. (1970) reported from New York only 3 out of 60 patients. Patients dying of cor pulmonale have manifested failure of the left ventricle but the role of cigarette smoking has not been proven (Mitchell et al., 1968; Rao et al., 1969; Strong et al., 1969).

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VII. CARDIOPULMONARY FUNCTION IN SMOKERS AND NONSMOKERS

C. CARDIAC FUNCTION

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VII- D. PULMONARY SURFACTANT AND OTHER CONSTITUENTS

Stability of the pulmonary alveoli is partially due to changes in surface tension. The surface active component of lung extract which is responsible for maintaining alveolar distension has been called surfactant. Bondurant (1960), Miller et al (1960) and Miller and Bondurant (1962) reported that the application of cigarette smoke to lung extract caused a decrease in surface tension. They also reported that lung extract prepared from rats which have been exposed to smoke in life have lower surface tension than that of unexposed rats. They concluded that these results may relate to the pathogenesis of pulmonary emphysema.

Subsequent reports have confirmed the reduction of surfactant in bronchial washings of the dog by in vitro application (Webb et al., 1967) and in the dog, cat and guinea pig by in vivo inhalation of cigarette smoke (Giammona, 1967; Sekulic et al., 1968). Two recent reports include the incorporation of radioactive labeled palmitic acid into pulmonary surfactant. Giammona et al. (1971) used unanesthetized dogs exposed repeatedly to cigarette smoke daily for 37 to 87 days. They noted no change in surface activity or in rate of time of incorporation of palmitic acid in these dogs. Balint et al. (1971) used anesthetized dogs and administered cigarette smoke by positive ventilation from 90 to 220 min. They reported a decrease in choline and phosphate incorporation in the lecithin of the lung. The results in the unanesthetized dog are similar to the effects obtained by the usual use of tobacco in man, whereas those in the anesthetized dog are toxicological in nature.

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Measurement of surfactant activity in man has been made on bronchial washings. Cook and Webb (1966) noted a decrease of surfactant action in nonsmokers with lung disease and in chronic smokers with or without demonstrable pulmonary disease. A reduction in the white layer of the lavage fluid after centrifugation has been reported in smokers (Pratt et al., 1969). There is a deficit in total lipid content, particularly of lecithin, in the lavage from smokers as compared with that from nonsmokers (Finley and Ladman, 1972). These observations have been commented upon by Clements (1972), Sachs (1972) and Finley (1972) in relation to the shortcomings of using lavage fluid in interpreting the events occurring in the alveolar lining.

There are other reported changes in the lung of patients with chronic lung disease. The reduction in tissue content of cadmium and zinc in patients with chronic bronchitis or pulmonary emphysema by Szadkowski et al. (1969). Lewis et al. (1969), and Morgan et al. (1971) have not been examined in the lungs of smokers without lung disease. Inhalation of cigarette smoke causes a release of histamine from lung tissue (Aviado et al., 1966) and from the guinea pig lung (Saindelle et al., 1968; Lewis and Nicholls, 1972). Exposure to cigarette smoke causes an increase in protein-mucopolysaccharide complexes in the connective tissue of the guinea pig lung (Lupu and Velican, 1962), an increase in hydroxyproline content of the mouse lung (Rosenkrantz et al., 1969) and a change in electron spin resonance of the rabbit lung (Rowlands et al., 1967). The significance of these observations in relation to lung disease has not been elucidated.

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VII. CARDIOPULMONARY FUNCTION IN SMOKERS AND NONSMOKERS

D. PULMONARY SURFACTANT AND OTHER CONSTITUENTS

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VIII. COMMENTARY ON SELECTED ARTICLES AND THEIR PUBLICITY

VIII-A. COMMENTARY ON U.S. PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE PUBLICATIONS

The author of this review has prepared a page by page critique of the seven documents distributed by the U.S. Public Health Service. A few examples of misquotation, omission and misinterpretation have been selected and are appended in this report. The reports have been identified by the year of their appearance. The pages pertinent in the subject of pulmonary disease are as follows:

	Reprint
(1) 1964: <u>Smoking and Health.</u> pp 259-315.	810
(2) 1967: <u>The Health Consequences of Smoking.</u> pp 87-124.	811
(3) 1968: <u>The Health Consequences of Smoking.</u> pp 63-86.	812
(4) 1969: <u>The Health Consequences of Smoking.</u> pp 35-52.	813
(5) 1971: <u>The Health Consequences of Smoking.</u> pp 137-230.	814
(6) 1972: <u>The Health Consequences of Smoking.</u> pp 35-56.	815
(7) 1973: <u>The Health Consequences of Smoking.</u> pp 43-91.	816

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1. Change in conclusions regarding the relationship of cigarette smoking to pulmonary emphysema and chronic bronchitis
(Reports 1964, 1967 and 1971).

CONCLUSIONS OF THE 1964 REPORT (57)

1. Cigarette smoking is the most important of the causes of bronchitis in the United States, and increases the risk of dying from chronic bronchitis.
2. A relationship exists between pulmonary emphysema and cigarette smoking but it has not been established that the relationship is causal. The smoking of cigarettes is associated with an increased risk of dying from pulmonary emphysema.
3. For the bulk of the population of the United States, the importance of cigarette smoking as a cause of chronic bronchopulmonary disease is much greater than that of atmospheric pollution or occupational exposures.
4. Cough, sputum production, or the two combined are consistently more frequent among cigarette smokers than among nonsmokers.
5. Cigarette smoking is associated with a reduction in ventilatory function. Among males, cigarette smokers have a greater prevalence of breathlessness than nonsmokers.
6. Cigarette smoking does not appear to cause asthma.
7. Although death certification shows that cigarette smokers have a moderately increased risk of death from influenza and pneumonia, an association of cigarette smoking and infectious diseases is not otherwise substantiated.

HIGHLIGHTS OF THE 1967 REPORT (57)

1. New data confirm and to some extent strengthen the conclusions of the Surgeon General's 1964 Report.
2. Cigarette smoking is the most important of the causes of chronic non-neoplastic bronchopulmonary diseases in the United States. It greatly increases the risk of dying not only from both chronic bronchitis but also from pulmonary emphysema.
3. Cessation of smoking is followed by a reduction in mortality from chronic bronchopulmonary disease relative to the mortality of those who continue to smoke.
4. Even relatively young cigarette smokers frequently have demonstrable respiratory symptoms and reduction in ventilatory function.

1971

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. Cigarette smoking is the most important cause of chronic obstructive bronchopulmonary disease in the United States. Cigarette smoking increases the risk of dying from pulmonary emphysema and chronic bronchitis. Cigarette smokers show an increased prevalence of respiratory symptoms, including cough, sputum production, and breathlessness, when compared with nonsmokers. Ventilatory function is decreased in smokers when compared with nonsmokers.
2. Cigarette smoking does not appear to be related to death from bronchial asthma although it may increase the frequency and severity of asthmatic attacks in patients already suffering from this disease.
3. The risk of developing or dying from COPD among pipe and/or cigar smokers is probably higher than that among nonsmokers while clearly less than that among cigarette smokers.
4. Ex-cigarette smokers have lower death rates from COPD than do continuing smokers. The cessation of cigarette smoking is associated with improvement in ventilatory function and with a decrease in pulmonary symptom prevalence.

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5. Young, relatively asymptomatic, cigarette smokers show measurably altered ventilatory function when compared with non-smokers of the same age.

6. For the bulk of the population of the United States, the importance of cigarette smoking as a cause of COPD is much greater than that of atmospheric pollution or occupational exposure. However, exposure to excessive atmospheric pollution or dusty occupational materials, and cigarette smoking may act jointly to produce greater COPD morbidity and mortality.

7. The results of experiments in both animals and humans have demonstrated that the inhalation of cigarette smoke is associated with acute and chronic changes in ventilatory function and pulmonary histology. Cigarette smoking has been shown to alter the mechanism of pulmonary clearance and adversely affect ciliary function.

8. Pathological studies have shown that cigarette smokers who die of diseases other than COPD have histologic changes characteristic of COPD in the bronchial tree and pulmonary parenchyma more frequently than do nonsmokers.

9. Respiratory infections are more prevalent and severe among cigarette smokers, particularly heavy smokers, than among nonsmokers.

10. Cigarette smokers appear to develop postoperative pulmonary complications more frequently than nonsmokers.

In the 1964 report, cigarette smoking is "the most important of the causes of chronic bronchitis" and for pulmonary emphysema "it has not been established that the relationship is causal."

By 1967, the two conditions were combined and cigarette smoking becomes "the most important of the causes of chronic non-neoplastic bronchopulmonary diseases."

In the latest summary, which appeared in 1971, cigarette smoking is identified as "the most important cause of chronic obstructive bronchopulmonary disease."

The change in terminology should be noted - from a separate identification of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema, finally to the all-inclusive name of chronic obstructive bronchopulmonary disease. This last term is used also for morbidity and mortality statistics, although death rates for pulmonary emphysema as distinct from chronic bronchitis are available. The reviewer is now in the process of evaluating the significance of the prevalence of bronchitis and emphysema separately.

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2. Experimental proof that cigarette smoking produces pulmonary emphysema in animals. The 1967 and 1971 reports contain an adequate coverage of Auerbach's experiments.

1967 Auerbach and his associates (5, 6) tracheostomized 10 adult beagles and, in an attempt to approximate human smoking more closely, exposed them to cigarette smoke through the tracheostomy tube. Five dogs died during this experiment and the remaining five were sacrificed after approximately 14 months of exposure. Other beagles were kept as controls; two had tracheostomy openings. These control dogs were sacrificed at the time the last five smoking dogs were sacrificed. Lungs of the dogs exposed to cigarette smoke showed microscopically the presence of dilated air spaces, especially beneath the pleural surface. Here the alveolar septa showed a fibrous thickening of the walls with areas of rupture and dilated air sacs. Padlike attachments to alveolar septa were found. These zones of connective tissue surrounding dilated air sacs were also visible macroscopically as white areas on the lung surface. There was no thickening of the walls of small arteries and arterioles within the lung. The lungs of the control dogs were normal in appearance with none of these changes. These abnormalities approximate but are not fully concordant with some of the typical pathological findings in human emphysema. This experiment does indicate that inhaled cigarette smoke apparently can damage the pulmonary parenchyma of dogs. Other findings (6) as yet unpublished, indicate that abnormalities of the bronchial epithelium resulted that approximate many of the histopathologic findings of human chronic bronchitis.

A71 The investigations of Auerbach and his coworkers (15, 16, 83) have demonstrated by the use of both light and electron microscopy that dogs who inhale cigarette smoke through tracheostomas develop progressively more severe lesions of the bronchi and parenchyma with increased exposure to cigarette smoke. In electron microscopic studies of specimens taken from the lungs of dogs thus exposed to cigarette smoke, the following changes were observed: In 5 dogs sacrificed after only 44 days of smoking exposure, there was a proliferation of goblet cells as well as a partial loss of cilia in the lining cells, and in 5 dogs sacrificed after 420 days or more of exposure, the number of cell layers in the bronchial epithelium was found to be twice that of the nonsmoking dogs. Goblet cells and ciliated columnar cells were no longer present; instead, the surface was lined with columnar and cuboidal cells with stubby projections in place of cilia. Mitotic figures were frequently observed in the basal cells. These findings may be relevant to carcinogenesis as well as to the development of COPD.

In a long-term experiment, carried out by the same group, dogs were exposed to varying doses of cigarette smoke. Details of the experimental procedure have been outlined in the section on Pulmonary Carcinogenesis. The animals were separated into non-smoker, filter-tip cigarette, nonfilter-light, and nonfilter-heavy exposure groups. The dogs were "smoked" for 875 days, or approximately 29 months. The animals which died during the experiment and the animals sacrificed after day 875 were examined for pulmonary parenchymal changes as well as for bronchial epithelial alterations. As seen in figures 1 and 2, dose-related pathological changes, including fibrosis and emphysema, were found in the lung parenchyma of the exposed dogs. These changes were similar to those seen in the lungs of humans with COPD.

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The experiments which failed to show that cigarette smoking does not produce pulmonary emphysema have not been mentioned in the reports. Some of the work from one laboratory has been quoted to describe details that do not relate to pulmonary emphysema directly:

1968. Aviado and his co-workers (2, 3, 4, 10, 38, 45, 46, 47, 48) have continued their studies on bronchoconstriction and bronchodilation in animals and recently have further investigated the role of histamine in a study of inhibitors for histamine decarboxylase in rabbits, dogs, and cats (39). These species have variations in response to cigarette smoking as previously noted. Cats have a uniphasic bronchoconstrictor response to inhaled cigarette smoke (somewhat like man's) and dogs have a biphasic response. Rabbits were observed to behave differently than cats or dogs. Histamine has been implicated as mediating part of the bronchoconstrictive effect of cigarette smoke. The rabbit does not respond to histamine by bronchoconstriction. This study (39) suggests that the rabbit lacks a histamine sensitive system in the airways, in contrast to cats and dogs. Alpha-hydrazino histidine, which inhibits the enzyme histamine decarboxylase, was demonstrated to prevent much of the bronchoconstrictive effect in cats and dogs. By analogy, this suggests the possibility that histamine may mediate some of the bronchoconstrictive response to inhaled tobacco smoke noted in humans. Pretreatment with atropine has been shown to block the bronchoconstriction caused by cigarette smoke (36) and by histamine inhalation in humans (7, 8, 52).

1971. Aviado and coworkers have performed a series of experiments on live animals and in heart-lung preparations to study the effect of cigarette smoke on pulmonary physiology and structure (18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 179, 180, 199, 200, 201, 202). The authors observed that cigarette smoke causes acute bronchoconstriction both by the release of histamine and the stimulation of parasympathetic nerve pathways in the lung. Bronchial arterial injections of nicotine were found to cause reactions similar to those observed after cigarette smoke inhalation. The bronchoconstriction was usually followed by bronchodilatation which the authors attributed to sympathetic stimulation. As mentioned in the Chapter on Cardiovascular Diseases, nicotine has been shown to induce the release of catecholamines.

Experiments by Aviado and coworkers as well as other authors (66, 99) using guinea pigs showed that exposure to cigarette smoke was associated with increased bronchopulmonary resistance and decreased pulmonary compliance. The authors related these changes to the bronchoconstriction of terminal ventilatory units.

Similar experiments in dogs showed that the increase in resistance following either cigarette smoke exposure or intravenous nicotine could be blocked by pretreatment with atropine. As a parasympathetic blocker, atropine would decrease the acute bronchoconstrictive phase.

1005051474

Most recently, Aviado and his colleagues (20, 130) have attempted to induce physiologic and anatomic changes similar to those found in the lungs of patients with emphysema. They exposed male rats to cigarette smoke, the introduction of the enzyme papain, as well as to partial tracheal ligation. In 10 rats exposed to cigarette smoke twice daily for 30 minutes over a period of 10 weeks, no changes in pulmonary compliance or resistance were noted. Also, no abnormal histological changes were observed in the group exposed only to cigarette smoke. However, animals who underwent tracheal ligation as well as smoke exposure showed increased numbers of enlarged air spaces and increased pulmonary resistance when compared with animals who underwent only tracheal ligation.

Aviado and coworkers have studied the effects of hormones on the pulmonary response to cigarette smoke inhalation and intravenous nicotine injection. Subcutaneous progesterone administration, prior to nicotine or smoke exposure, reduced the bronchoconstrictor response in rats (64). A similar experiment involving pretreatment of dogs with glucocorticoids resulted in variable bronchoconstrictor responses after exposure to cigarette smoke (12).

In the 1971 quotation, there is no mention that the attempt to induce emphysema in rats by exposure to cigarette smoke failed, although other procedures caused the lesions. The failure to elicit emphysema appeared in the conclusions of two articles which the documents overlooked.

Summary of Ito and Aviado (1968)

Rats exposed to cigarette smoke daily for ten weeks did not develop signs of pulmonary emphysema. The rats subjected to experimental ligation of the trachea and intratracheal injection of papain developed signs of pulmonary emphysema but exposure to cigarette smoke did not uniformly influence the various signs. Functional residual capacity was not markedly elevated although histological examination showed a higher percentage of air spaces in emphysematous rats exposed to cigarette smoke. Cigarette smoke caused an increase in pulmonary resistance only in the rats with experimental emphysema. The increase in resistance is interpreted to mean an increase in bronchomotor tone. Isoproterenol injection induces bronchodilatation, more intensely in rats exposed to cigarette smoke.

Summary of Aviado *et al.* (1970)

This is the second reported attempt to demonstrate that cigarette smoke can induce pulmonary emphysema in rats. The negative results have been scrutinized to determine the significance of the changes in airway resistance and content of biogenic amines during exposure to cigarette smoke. These changes in the lung are not important in determining the appearance or disappearance of pulmonary emphysema in rats. In the same animal species, tracheal ligation and endotracheal injection of papain produce pulmonary emphysema.

1005051475

3. Evaluation of air pollution. The U.S. Public Health documents have arrived at the conclusion that cigarette smoking is the most important factor in the causation of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema. They have interpreted articles relating to air pollution and industrial hazards as indicating that these are less important than cigarette smoking. A re-examination of 48 articles indicates just the opposite conclusion made by the authors and details are outlined in Sections III and IV. One example is the report of Phelps and Koike (1962). The 1964 report has the following citation:

In the "Tokyo-Yokohama Asthma" studies, a severe asthma-like disease, presumed to be caused by air pollution, affected cigarette smokers predominantly (155). The absence of smoking data on unaffected members of the same population leaves the question of an additive effect of cigarette smoking unanswered. One study suggests that non-smokers may have a slightly greater prevalence of asthma than smokers; the possibility of bias due to self-selection of the base population could not, however, be excluded in this study (84).

Phelps and Koike concluded that air pollution is the cause of the disability. Removing the patients from the area caused a dramatic relief. The quotations are as follows:

As the disease progresses (usually in the patient with symptoms who remains in this area for several years or who returns to the area after having had the disease during a previous tour), more shortness of breath is manifested. The patient by this time is usually receiving adrenal steroids and has been frequently hospitalized. It is at this time that all of the symptoms and signs of emphysema are present. This is more likely to occur in persons who are heavy cigarette smokers. Although the study is by no means complete, it is believed that there is evidence that air pollution, of unknown content, is the cause of much disability which, under certain conditions, may progress rapidly to emphysema.

The follow-up studies revealed that those patients who were transferred to the United States early in the course of the disease had dramatic relief of their symptoms. All pulmonary function studies returned to normal within one to two months after the arrival of these patients in the United States. Their function studies took longer to return to normal than their symptoms. Those persons who had their disease for a long period of time (two to three years) took much longer to become asymptomatic, and it took even longer for their pulmonary function studies to become normal. Most of the patients were improved so far as coughing and wheezing were concerned, but they still had shortness of breath. The first sign of recovery appeared to be an increased response to IPPV with Isuprel.

1005051476

VIII-B. COMMENTARY ON SELECTED ARTICLES

The conclusions of the U.S. Public Health Service Publications have been accepted by several organizations, government bodies and authors. Quotations from the following articles have been selected to illustrate the manner by which the conclusions have been quoted for special purposes. The articles are arranged according to the year of their publication.

Page		Reprint
162	(8) FIESER L F: More on smoking and health. <u>Chemistry</u> 19: , 1964	817
164	(9) KAMPMEIER R H: Smoking and noncancerous pulmonary disease. <u>Southern Med J</u> 57:981-3, 1964.	818
165	(10) EDITORIAL. <u>West Virginia Med J</u> 60:51-2, 1964	819
166	(11) RAVENHOLT R T: Cigarette smoking: magnitude of the hazard. <u>Am J Public Health</u> 54:1923-26, 1964.	820
167	(12) WAKERLIN G E: Cigarette smoking and the role of the physician. <u>Circulation</u> 29:651-6, 1964.	821
168	(13) FISHBEIM M: Medical progress in 1964.	822
169	(14) U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE. Three kinds of evidence. <u>Public Health Service Publication</u> 1103-F:1-2, 1965.	823
171	(15) FOGARTY J E: Delivered to the Task Force on chronic bronchitis and emphysema. <u>NTA Bulletin</u> 3-6, 1967.	824
172	(16) SHAMBAUGH G E: Additional data on smoking. <u>Arch Otolaryng</u> 85: 589-90, 1967.	825
173	(17) WHATLEY J L: Battle for breath. <u>Today's Health</u> 42-71, 1967.	826
174	(18) ABELSON P H: Changing attitudes toward smoking. <u>Science</u> 161: 319, 1968.	827
175	(19) DELARUE N C: Health hazards of smoking. <u>Modern Med Canada</u> 23:37-42, 1968.	828
176	(20) HARKEN D E: Smoking . . . The Masochistic massacre. <u>Dis Chest</u> 54: 445-9, 1968.	829
177	(21) HUTCHISON G.B: The nature of epidemiologic evidence: smoking and health. <u>Bull NY Acad Med</u> 44:1471-5, 1968.	830
178	(22) NYLAN L H: Air pollution and emphysema. <u>Connecticut Med</u> 32:706 -7, 1968	831
179	(23) OCHSNER A: Prevention of executive obsolescence. <u>J Am Geriatrics Soc</u> 16: 1077-82, 1968.	832

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Reprint

- 180 (24) SCHUMAN L M: Epidemiology of smoking related diseases which physicians encounter in their office practice. Dis Chest 54: 176-9, 1968. 833
- 181 (25) JACOBS E C: Smoking - insidious suicide and personal air pollution. Military Med 135:678-81, 1970. 834
- 182 (26) BENNETT J S: Smoking - time to practice what we preach. Canad Med Assoc J 106:276, 278, 1972. 835

1005051478

(8) FIESER L F : More on smoking and health. Chemistry 19: , 1964.

You may have seen headlines about the report of the Surgeon General's Advisory Committee on Smoking and Health (Chemistry, February 1964, page 2), but I doubt that you have waded through the 557-page document or the lengthy newspaper accounts of its findings. Since I was the only chemist on the 10-man advisory committee, I could hardly decline a request from the editor of Chemistry for a summary of the report addressed to Chemistry's readers. You may care to know what it all boils down to, so that you can make a wise decision for yourself and so that you can offer sound advice to others.

Countless weekend committee meetings were held in Washington in which we worked over a Friday-Saturday-Sunday stretch, continuing each day from 8:30 a.m. to about 8 p.m. One problem was that the medical men, who properly predominated on the committee, would not use a simple term such as "cancer of the mouth" when the more dignified medical term "carcinoma of the buccal cavity" was available.

The unanimous opinion of our committee was: "Cigaret smoking is a health hazard of sufficient importance in the United States to warrant appropriate remedial action."

A few of the findings on which this judgment was based are as follows:

- Cigaret smoking is causally related to lung cancer in men; the magnitude of the effect of cigarette smoking far outweighs all other factors. The data for women, though less extensive, point in the same direction.
- The risk of developing lung cancer increases with duration of smoking and the number of cigarettes smoked per day and is diminished by discontinuing smoking.
- Cigaret smoking is the most important of the causes of chronic bronchitis and increases the risk of dying from chronic bronchitis and from pulmonary emphysema.
- Male cigarette smokers have a higher death rate from coronary artery disease than non-smoking males.
- The death rate for smokers of cigarettes is about 70% higher than that for nonsmokers.

These are strong words and they call for strong actions. It is not yet clear what remedial actions will be instituted by governmental agencies, but there is no question about the course young people should take. Don't smoke cigarettes. Don't let yourself fall into the habit of smoking. It is a habit which many people regret but find difficult to break. You young people are in a position to make a decision in advance and so save yourselves from concern about remedial measures at a later, critical stage.

1005051479

Commentary (8) Fieser, Cont.

The author of this Editorial has combined the two pulmonary diseases to read "increases the risk of dying from chronic bronchitis and from pulmonary emphysema." In the 1964 statement, the two diseases were covered in separate sentences: "cigarette smoking is the most important of the causes of chronic bronchitis" and "a relationship exists between pulmonary emphysema and cigarette smoking but it has not been established that the relationship is causal."

1005051480

- (9) KAMPMEIER R H : Smoking and noncancerous pulmonary disease. Southern Med J 57: 981-3, 1964.

Though there have been numerous demonstrations of impairment of pulmonary function in heavy cigarette smokers as compared to control groups, the main evidence of the hazard of cigarette smoking in terms of chronic bronchitis and eventual emphysema comes from epidemiologic studies. Everyone recognizes that air pollution, in cities especially and in certain occupations, can not be divorced from inhaled cigarette smoke when considering the ill effects of inspired air. Yet, other than asthma and familial tendencies to emphysema, chronic cough and infection are accepted as important factors in the development of emphysema. No one denies the "smokers' cough" and few would deny the airway resistance which is part of inhaled smoke, both unquestioned potentials in the development of emphysema. The pathologic evidence of alterations in the bronchial mucosa in prolonged cigarette smoking is so overwhelming that few argue about this anymore. The symptoms of this chronic bronchitis as a role in emphysema need no more than a mention.

What it all adds up to, is that no one has been able to show unquestioned causal relationship between cigarette smoking and chronic bronchitis and/or emphysema even approaching that of its relationship to bronchogenic carcinoma. But no matter how good a case the apologist for tobacco may make for chronic infection and air pollutants other than cigarette smoke as a cause for bronchitis and for emphysema, the fact remains that cigarette smoke is a pollutant which in its own right can impair pulmonary function and therefore has a deleterious effect on pulmonary structures over and above the other unavoidable factors in the air of our environment and the bacterial flora of our respiratory tract. It would be rather nonsensical to discard as accidental increased mortality rates in heavy cigarette smokers over those of control groups of nonsmokers in epidemiologic studies of chronic bronchitis and emphysema.

The application of epidemiologic studies to pulmonary emphysema and chronic bronchitis is mixed up with pathologic evidence. The prevalence of respiratory symptoms does not refer to incidence of these two separate disease entities. Although the 1964 statement has made a distinction between the influence of cigarette smoking to symptoms of bronchitis, others have interpreted the symptoms as indicating the positive presence of the disease.

1005051481

(10) EDITORIAL. West Virginia Med J 60: 51-2, 1964.

An association between cigarette smoking and chronic lung disease has been established beyond medical argument. Cigarette smoking accounts for the majority of cases of emphysema and emphysema deaths now outnumber tuberculosis deaths. It has been estimated that smoking ten cigarettes per day will lead to a diminution of four years in life expectancy for the average American. Cancer of the lung is from 20 to 30 times more prevalent in the cigarette smoker than the non-smoker. This is our most deadly cancer with a salvage rate of only 5 per cent. A study of British physicians shows that at age 35 the chances of dying within the next ten years are 1-23 for the heavy cigarette smoker and 1-90 for the non-smoker.

The opening sentence refers to association between cigarette smoking and chronic lung disease but the second sentence condemns smoking because it accounts for the majority of cases of emphysema. A causal relationship between cigarette smoking and emphysema has not been established, according to the 1964 report.

1005051482

(11) RAVENHOLT R T : Cigarette smoking: magnitude of the hazard. Am J Public Health 54: 1923-26, 1964.

The consensus of findings of many studies⁹ indicate that approximately nine-tenths of lung cancer deaths in the United States today are caused by smoking; and this consistent fact may be used in conjunction with the above findings (Table 1) to achieve a rough measure of total tobacco disease mortality:

Deaths from lung cancer in total population	122	1
Excess deaths from all causes among smokers	723	6

Hence, excess mortality from all causes among smokers in an American-type population is probably about six times greater than total lung cancer mortality in that population.

During 1962, 41,376 deaths were ascribed to lung cancer in the United States¹⁰; and by application of the lung cancer index of one-sixth, one can estimate that there were roughly a quarter million excess deaths due to smoking—which was 14 per cent of all deaths (1,755,720) from all causes. The relative importance of tobacco (especially cigarettes) as a hazard to life in the United States is indicated by the following balance of causes of death. (Figure 1.) The sum of all deaths from accidents, infection, suicide, homicide, alcohol, and stomach cancer only equals the quarter-million deaths from tobacco disease in the United States during 1962.

American Balance of Hazards to Life, 1962

Quarter Million Deaths from Tobacco	
*Lung Cancer	37,000
†Other Cancer Deaths (Of larynx, bladder, etc.)	23,000
‡Coronary Disease	119,000
§Other Vascular Disease (Strokes, etc.)	35,000
¶Other Tobacco Diseases (Emphysema, bronchitis, etc.)	36,000

Quarter Million Deaths from Selected Causes	
All Accidents	97,139
Motor vehicle	40,804
Aircraft	1,254
Drowning	5,161
Other accidents	49,920
All Infectious Diseases	93,745
Tuberculosis	9,506
Pneumonia	66,999
Typhoid	15
Diphtheria	41
Other Infections	17,184
Suicide	20,207
Homicide	9,013
Alcohol	9,959
Stomach Cancer	19,378

* Nine-tenths of all (41,376) lung cancer deaths. † Number estimated from lung cancer index. (Total coronary disease deaths—327,561; total deaths from all causes—1,755,720.)

This article illustrates how portions of the 1964 statement has been used to equalize "excess death among smokers" with hazards to life. The death rate from emphysema and bronchitis is multiplied by lung cancer index and those compared with deaths from selected causes.

1005051483

- (21) HUTCHISON C B : The nature of epidemiologic evidence: smoking and health. Bull NY Acad Med 44: 1471-5, 1968.

EPIDEMIOLOGIC EVIDENCE

An extensive literature on associations between smoking and cardiovascular disease is now available. I propose to comment on some of the studies in this literature in which the unit of observation is a person and in which information is collected to characterize persons as to state of health. These are the studies which are commonly referred to as epidemiologic studies. When these studies are interpreted in terms of cause-effect relations the cause-effect concept is usually the pragmatic one.

The proof of cause-effect would be established or rejected by deliberately manipulating the smoking habits of such persons and observing the results. No such studies have been made to my knowledge. Controversy, when it occurs, rests on differences of opinion as to what constitutes proof in the absence of such a manipulative study. There are those who feel that proof is *never* established without such human experimentation. Others feel that proof can be established through observational studies, but there is little agreement as to what sorts of observations are required.

A number of schemes have been suggested for assuring such proof. Koch's postulates are an early attempt, but are applicable only when the causative event is exposure or nonexposure to living organisms. The surgeon general's committee has proposed a number of conditions which must be satisfied. These include consistency, strength, specificity, and coherence of the association. The ultimate decision, however, is said to be judgmental.

The discussion of epidemiology is followed by the conclusion that the evidence is adequate to support the cause and effect relationship between lung cancer and cigarette smoking. If the same principle is applied to pulmonary emphysema, a cause and effect relationship has not been established.

1005051484

(22) NYLAN L H : Air pollution and emphysema: Connecticut Med 32: 706-7, 1968.

About 20,000 Americans will die of emphysema this year, seven times the number that succumbed to it a decade ago. It disables one out of fourteen American workers over forty-five years of age. E. Cyler Hammond, Vice President of the American Cancer Society told a senate subcommittee that a recent study of 120,000 men indicates that a combined atmosphere of cigarette smoke and occupational pollution creates heightened risk of emphysema. A nonsmoker exposed to occupational pollution (smog, pollen, dust, exhaust fumes or other irritants) has one chance in ninety of developing emphysema. Among heavy smokers exposed to the same air pollution, one in seven develops this crippling disease. These findings are not new and are supported by those of others that air pollution and cigarette smoking often leads to destruction of lung tissue that characterizes emphysema.

The risk of smoker exposed to air pollution cited by Hammond in his testimony is one of 10 possible figures. The other reports do not indicate such a disparity between smokers and nonsmokers.

1005051485

- (23) OCHSNER A : Prevention of executive obsolescence. J Am Geriatrics Soc
16: 1077-82, 1968.

Severe emphysema is a condition that can be considered worse than cancer. The patient with cancer of the lung either dies (only about 6 per cent can be cured) or gets well, whereas the patient with severe emphysema has a living death. According to the United States Public Health statistics, more than 12 million people in the United States today are completely disabled by severe emphysema caused directly by cigarette smoking. In 1965 in the United States, there were 77 million man-days lost from work because of tobacco, an additional 88 million man-days of sickness in bed as the result of use of tobacco, and 360,000,000 man-days of restricted activity because of the effects of tobacco. On the basis of these statistics, and using minimal figures of \$40 a day for those totally disabled and \$20 a day for those partially disabled, the loss of income from disability caused by tobacco in 1965 amounted to \$15,800,000,000. The only reason that tobacco does not cause senescence more often is that frequently it causes early death—the dubious advantage of being spared early obsolescence.

The Surgeon General's report has been used to discuss tobacco and senescence. The author, a foremost surgeon, has accepted all the statistics and figures in 1967 document.

1005051486

- (24) SCHUMAN L M : Epidemiology of smoking related diseases which physicians encounter in their office practice. Dis Chest 54: 176-9, 1968.

Chronic bronchopulmonary diseases were causally implicated in the 1964 Advisory Committee report to the Surgeon General. The evidence was deemed adequate for a causal relationship between cigarette smoking and chronic bronchitis and was strongly implicated as increasing the risk of death from pulmonary emphysema. Despite recent attempts at more precise definitions of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema, the status of such definitions over the immediate past in our own country and those in other countries make trends and comparisons difficult if we attempt to separate the two entities. Thus, mortality and morbidity analyses are better applied to a combination of the two—chronic bronchitis and/or emphysema. As a problem in mortality, chronic bronchitis and/or emphysema presently claim half as many deaths as does lung cancer. However, in the 16-year period, 1950-65, deaths from these two non-neoplastic pulmonary diseases have increased over six-fold from 3,157 deaths reported in 1950 to 23,432 reported in 1965.^{1,2} This increase has been greater than the similarly appalling toll from lung cancer. The most dramatic rise has been for the emphysema component for which the age-adjusted mortality rates rose from 1.3 per 100,000 in 1950 to almost 13.0 in 1965. Deaths from chronic bronchitis rose less spectacularly, only doubling in the same period. Although some of these increases must represent diagnostic improvement, it is difficult to ascertain the degree to which this operated. The causal relationship with cigarette smoking and the use of cigarettes in this period would suggest that a major part of this rise in mortality must be real.

The explanation for combination of chronic bronchitis and emphysema in mortality statistics is not a convincing one. Since 1964, the diagnosis of the two disease entities has advanced to the point of widespread application. It would be reasonable to analyze the death rates from the two diseases separately.

1005051487

- (12) WAKERLIN G E : Cigarette smoking and the role of the physician.
Circulation 29: 651-6, 1964.

Smoking and Other Diseases

Epidemiologic, experimental, and clinical studies have demonstrated adverse relationships between cigarette smoking and lung cancer, chronic bronchitis, and emphysema. One of the complications of emphysema is cor pulmonale. Cigarette smoking has also been shown to be associated with an increased incidence of arteriosclerosis of the pulmonary arterioles and small arteries.

Increased morbidity and mortality among cigarette smokers have been reported for certain other forms of cancer and for peptic ulcer.

Smoking and Over-all Death Rates

Cigarette smokers show adverse changes in structure and function of the lungs and bronchial tree.^{18, 19} Pulmonary function changes include decreased vital capacity and decreased forced expiratory volume.²⁰ Some of these changes revert toward normal in those who stop smoking.²¹

In addition to the greater risk of illness and death from disease, recent studies suggest a reduced sense of well-being among cigarette smokers. Thus, compared with absence of the cigarette habit, cigarette smoking is more frequently associated with cough, shortness of breath, decreased appetite, and increased "nervous tension."²² An adverse association of cigarette smoking with body function appears to begin with fetal life, since more premature infants are born to mothers who smoke cigarettes.^{23, 24}

Recent Actions with Reference to Smoking

The statements are individually accurate. The implication to the reader is unavoidable: pulmonary effects of cigarette smoking is responsible for deaths which in turn has led to recent actions against smoking.

1005051488

(13) FISHBEIM M : Medical progress in 1964.

The rise in cancer of the lung was associated with a considerable increase in emphysema in many parts of the world, particularly in the U.S., Canada, and England. One survey indicated that about 25% of men over 45 have some degree of emphysema. The condition is from seven to 13 times more frequent among cigarette smokers than among nonsmokers. Both cigarettes and air pollution have been considered as causative factors. Great attention is now focused on determining the exact relationships among these factors and diseases.

Looking back at 1964, a few peaks of interest become apparent in each area of medical research and medical practice. Heart disease, cancer, and high blood pressure with stroke received major medical attention as the leading causes of death. Infectious diseases were controllable as never before, and more of the infectious diseases of childhood became wholly amenable to prevention and cure.

The survey showing that 25% of men over 45 have some degree of emphysema refers to prevalence of coughing and expectoration. The quoted 7 to 13 times more frequent among cigarette smokers is also based on incidence of respiratory symptoms. The mortality ratio for pulmonary emphysema among smokers compared to nonsmokers is about 3 times.

1005051489

(14) U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Public Health Service
Publication 1103-F: 1-2, 1965.

SURGEON GENERAL'S COMMITTEE

By 1962 scientific research had implicated the cigarette in several major diseases. In addition to chronic bronchitis and emphysema, these included heart disease and lung cancer. That year, the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service appointed an advisory committee of 10 eminent scientists to review the accumulated evidence. The committee had advice and consultation from nearly 200 specialists representing every related field of interest.

THREE KINDS OF EVIDENCE

The Surgeon General's Committee reviewed three kinds of research evidence.

1. Animal Experiments

Animals exposed to tobacco smoke show severe damage to the cells lining the air tubes—the same kind of damage seen in heavy smokers. (A pack a day or more is considered "heavy smoking.")

2. Human Tissue

When the cells of the bronchi of smokers and nonsmokers are compared, the smokers cells show characteristic damage: loss of the cilia and irregular shapes. These changes have been noted in thousands of studies, both in living patients and at autopsy.

3. Population Studies

Extensive and repeated studies of large numbers of people have consistently shown that cigarette smokers are more likely to have symptoms of respiratory disease than nonsmokers. They cough more, bring up more phlegm, and complain more of breathlessness.

SMOKING AND HEALTH REPORT

In January 1964, the Surgeon General's Committee finished the most comprehensive study of smoking and health ever undertaken. Studies involving more than a million men had been reviewed. For cigarette smokers, the death rate from chronic bronchitis and emphysema was found to be *six times* greater than for nonsmokers. A 500-percent difference! Ex-smokers had a death rate from these diseases about 40 percent greater than for nonsmokers. Men who began smoking before the age 20 had a higher death rate than those who started later.

1005051490

Commentary (14) U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Cont.

This widely distributed leaflet contains selected statements, each one quoted from the 1964 report. The combination of the three kinds of evidence do not relate to chronic bronchitis or pulmonary emphysema mentioned above and below the quotation. The animals were not sick with emphysema or bronchitis, the human tissue was obtained from smokers who were not suffering from emphysema or bronchitis, and the population studies surveyed respiratory symptoms which do not necessarily signify emphysema or bronchitis.

1005051491

- (15) FOGARTY J E : Delivered to the Task Force on chronic bronchitis and emphysema. NTA Bulletin 3-6, 1967.

What is the cause—or should I say causes—of emphysema, the condition that begins innocently enough with a mild cough and seems to proceed to increasing shortness of breath until the normal activities of the day become increasingly burdensome?

Is cigarette smoking a factor? We are told in the report of the Surgeon General's Advisory Committee on Smoking and Health that cigarette smoking is an important cause of chronic bronchitis and that a "relationship" exists between cigarette smoking and emphysema. Has that relationship as yet been defined? Despite the accumulating evidence that cigarette smoking and emphysema are intimately linked, our society is heedlessly smoking six per cent more cigarettes a year than in 1964, when the report of the Surgeon General's committee was released.

What about air pollution? In all honesty, we do not need experts to tell us that air pollution is an insult to our respiratory tract, yet until now our national complacency has permitted the continued spewing of poisons into the air.

The relationship of cigarette smoking to chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema is differentiated in this article, according to the 1964 report. The term cause is unfortunate; risk factor would have been more appropriate.

The Cause

1005051492

- (16) SHAMBAUGH G E : Additional data on smoking. Arch Otolaryng 85: 589-90, 1967.

THE NATIONAL Center for Health Statistics in October 1966 published the Mortality Statistics From Diseases Associated With Smoking, from 1950 to 1964. Two groups of diseases are considered: those *causally related* to smoking, namely cancer of the lung, cancer of the larynx, cancer of the lip, and chronic bronchitis, and those *associated* with smoking but where the evidence is not yet sufficient to establish a causal relationship. The latter group comprises arteriosclerotic heart disease including coronary disease, cirrhosis of the liver, emphysema, ulcer of the stomach, cancer of the esophagus, cancer of the oral cavity other than the lip, cancer of the bladder and other urinary organs, and noncoronary cardiovascular disease. *JAMA* (199:24 [Jan 23], 1967) carries an interesting study of cigarette smoking in dogs. After more than 420 days of smoking through a tracheostomy tube there was marked cardiac enlargement compared to controls, and pulmonary fibrosis and emphysema in all the smoking dogs, not found in any of the controls. Interestingly some of the dogs showed a liking of cigarette smoking as indicated by tail-wagging and jumping into the smoking box voluntarily. With this evidence perhaps emphysema should be reclassified as causally related to smoking, rather than associated with smoking.

The widely publicized "smoking dogs" has undoubtedly led to the reversal of the statement from no causal to causal relationship between cigarette smoking and pulmonary emphysema. There are other attempts in animals which failed to show a cause and effect relationship but these were never publicized.

1005051493

(17) WHATLEY J L : Battle for breath. Today's Health 42-71, 1967.

Emphysema and chronic bronchitis are the fastest rising causes of death in the country. Almost 20,000 people will die this year from emphysema or its complications. Whether this increase is due to better methods of diagnosis, or to the greater longevity of our population, we do not know. Certainly, part of the increase is due to modern environmental conditions (exhaust fumes, smog, cigarette smoke, etc.).

Emphysema is about 13 times more prevalent among cigarette smokers than among non-smokers, but many who have never smoked contract the disease. Men develop emphysema five to 10 times more frequently than women, probably because women are "abdominal breathers" (they use the diaphragm and abdominal muscles more), whereas men are "chest breathers" (they use the chest muscles more).

At present, we don't know the exact cause of pulmonary emphysema, but we do know quite a bit about it. We know that it is an overinflation of the lung due to loss of that organ's natural elasticity. The smaller airways (bronchial tubes) narrow from spasm, irritation, infection, or a combination of the three. This narrowing traps the air in the small air sacs (alveoli), and they dilate and lose their elasticity, or ability to recoil.

The 13 times prevalence of emphysema among cigarette smokers is based on incidence of respiratory symptoms which does not necessarily signify the disease. The author avoids stating that emphysema is caused by cigarette smoking. Even though the author does not know the exact cause of pulmonary emphysema, the hurried reader will undoubtedly regard the 13 times prevalence of cigarette smoking as a causative factor.

1005051494

- (18) ABELSON P H : Changing attitudes toward smoking. Science 161: 319, 1968.

The attitudes of the people of the United States toward cigarette smoking are undergoing a major change. In the 30-year period prior to 1964, per capita consumption of cigarettes tripled. During the last 4 years, per capita consumption of cigarettes has leveled off, and currently it may be dropping. The 1964 Surgeon General's Advisory Committee report entitled "Smoking and Health" was a major milestone. The report set in motion developments that ultimately will have a profound effect. One consequence was the stimulation of research bearing upon the effects of smoking. A recent compendium lists 364 projects in 36 states, the District of Columbia, and 25 foreign countries.

Out of this research activity has come substantial evidence that the effects of smoking are even more serious than was stated in the 1964 report. Highlights of the findings have been presented in a new U.S. Public Health Service document.* The most striking finding is that "the life expectancy for a two-pack a day, or more, smoker at age 25 is 8.3 years less than [that for] the corresponding non-smoker."

The 1964 report probably has influenced the smoking habits of physicians. At one time many of them were heavy smokers. A recent survey† indicates that 100,000 physicians have stopped smoking cigarettes. Of all the physicians surveyed, 35 percent had never smoked, 36 percent had smoked at one time but had stopped, and only 29 percent were still smoking. In contrast, 52 percent of the general adult male population currently smoke cigarettes.

The survey also indicates that physicians are deeply concerned over the effects of smoking. More than 90 percent stated that they associate smoking with chronic bronchitis, lung cancer, and emphysema, and almost as many associate it with peripheral vascular disease and coronary artery disease. The responses of physicians who have stopped smoking are revealing. When asked on the survey questionnaire why they stopped, 60 percent checked "Protect my future health," 47 percent checked "Occurrence of certain symptoms," and 43 percent checked "Scientific reports convinced me."

Following the appearance of 1967 Report, a second wave of Editorials appeared. The smoking habits of physicians are discussed here. It is important to point out that 43% who stopped smoking were convinced of the scientific reports summarized in the U. S. Public Health documents.

1005051495

- (19) DELARUE N C : Health hazards of smoking. Modern Med Canada 23: 37-42, 1968.

2. Chronic Bronchitis and Emphysema.

There are now 80,000 annual deaths in the United States from these diseases and although they both may develop in non-smokers, the risk of death in cigarette smokers is increased from eight to 15 times as compared to the non-smoking population. In the five-year period between 1959 and 1964 deaths from chronic bronchitis increased 90 per cent and over the same period, deaths from emphysema increased 104 per cent. There were 421,000 new cases of bronchitis recorded in 1965, and 267,000 new cases of emphysema defined in the same period. At that time, it was estimated that there were more than three million cases of chronic bronchitis in the United States.

This special article appeared in a Canadian journal. It can be noted that United States statistics are quoted here, even though there is information directly from Canada. Other countries have relied on the U. S. Public Health documents for statistics relating to chronic bronchitis, although its incidence varies from country to country.

1005051496

(20) HARKEN D E : Smoking . . . The Masochistic massacre. Dis Chest 54: 445-9, 1968.

The combination of seven prospective studies reveals that the mortality rates of cigarette smokers over non-smokers for all causes of death was 7 per cent higher in smokers.

Let us look at some cold facts on mortality in a combination of seven prospective mortality records of smokers versus non-smokers:

Cancer of lung	(10.8)	1000 per cent (leading cancer in men)
Bronchitis and emphysema	(6.1)	600 per cent (and leading cause of disability)
Cancer of the larynx	(5.4)	
Oral cancer	(4.1)	
Cancer of the esophagus	(3.4)	
Peptic ulcer	(2.7)	
Atherosclerotic disease	(2.6)	
Coronary artery disease	(1.7)	70 per cent

.....

Although death rates of chronic bronchitis separately from pulmonary emphysema are available, the 1967 report combines the two diseases, presumably to improve the statistical significance. Reference to the mortality ratio for smokers to nonsmokers appearing in articles such as the one under consideration do not question the practice.

1005051497

- (25) JACOBS E C : Smoking: insidious suicide and personal air pollution.
Military Med 135: 678-81, 1970.

Facts

Smoking remains the foremost preventable cause of disease, disability and death in the United States.¹⁻¹² Smoking causes coronary artery disease, lung cancer, emphysema, thrombo-angiitis obliterans and the like, annually producing hundreds of thousands of premature deaths and many hundreds of thousands of cripples. Tobacco diseases are causing many millions of man-days lost annually in this country. Tobacco diseases can shorten the smoker's life by eight or more years,¹² can cause a death every 1.5 minutes,¹³ and cost the Nation between \$4 billion⁹ and \$20 billion annually.¹³

The statements in the U. S. Public Health documents are abbreviated in this short paragraph. It can be noted that smoking is stated to cause pulmonary emphysema. The phrase "no causal relationship has not been established" has been omitted.

1005051498

- (26) BENNETT J S : Smoking: time to practice what we preach. Canad Med Assoc J 106: 276, 278 1972.

The 1962 report on Smoking and Health by the Royal College of Physicians (London) was discounted by the tobacco industry as contributing little but "statistical association". The College's new report "Smoking and Health Now" (1971) points out that the criticism of "statistical evidence only" cannot be upheld as a valid objection. Much of aetiology, morbidity incidence, etc., on human disease is based on statistical evidence; the pro-smoking faction suggests that, as far as smoking is concerned, no laboratory evidence is available to show its responsibility for lung cancer. However, the recent work of Auerbach and Hammond on invasive lung cancer in dogs should convince the Doubting Thomases. Statements from the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare (1971) are:

1. Cigarette smoking is the major cause of lung cancer.
2. Cigarette smoking is the most important cause of chronic obstructive broncho-pulmonary disease, principally chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema.
3. Cigarette smoking is an important risk factor in the development of coronary heart disease and, by accelerating damage already present as a result of coronary heart disease, may contribute to sudden death.

Isn't it time that the medical profession became a little more active in the efforts to reduce one of the major health hazards of our time. We tend to get worked up about pollution but do little about one of the greatest contaminants of all — the tobacco smoker.

1005051499

The 1971 U. S. Public Health document and the 1971 report from the Royal College of Physicians are cited in this article. The widely publicized smoking dogs are cited as the most important laboratory evidence to support the statement that cigarette smoking is the major cause of lung cancer and the most important cause of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema.

VIII-C. PUBLICITY RELATING TO SMOKING AND HEALTH

The widespread distribution of the seven documents on "Smoking and Health" has led to the appearance of secondary publications. Almost all of them accept the conclusions appearing in the seven documents that cigarette smoking is the most important cause of chronic bronchitis and pulmonary emphysema. A few articles contest the statement but none has appeared in recent years. The articles are listed in the following order:

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IX. RECOMMENDATIONS

The reviewer is submitting the following recommendations to the Council for Tobacco Research:

1. Publication. That cigarette smoking is one of several risk factors and not the most important cause of chronic pulmonary disease should be publicized to the medical profession and the general public. Portions of this review can be expanded and modified for publication and distribution.

2. Epidemiology. The expert advice of a statistician is needed to review mortality statistics, specifically to analyze the death rate for pulmonary emphysema separately from that for chronic bronchitis. The morbidity statistics should also be examined for regional differences in the United States and comparison between countries.

3. Clinical investigation. A five-year follow-up of smokers should be conducted to determine whether those with early signs of ventilatory function develop pulmonary emphysema or chronic bronchitis.

4. Pathological investigation. A registry of persons who have been smokers for 50 years would be helpful in determining the influence of cigarette smoking.

5. Animal investigation. Attempts to induce pulmonary emphysema or chronic bronchitis in animals should continue. The emphasis should be given to determining the relative importance of air pollution, infection and cigarette smoking in the same laboratory model.

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X. ADDITIONAL BIBLIOGRAPHIC LISTS

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